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EGYPT.

AFTER the partial lifting of the veil covering the policy or no-policy of the Government in Egypt which took place last week, it has once more dropped. The English Note on the subject of the Soudan and the substitution of NUBAR for CHERIF remain the chief positive acquisitions of information on the subject. It is not even known whether the retention of the Red Sea Littoral, if it was ever a question of doubt, has ceased to be one. The extraordinary rumour which announced the renewal of one of the most mischievous features of the Dual Control—the establishment in every public office of an Englishman and a Frenchman side by side to “prevent susceptibilities”; in other words, to burden the luckless Egyptian Administration with expensive and mutually obstructive functionaries—if not wholly confirmed, has not been authoritatively contradicted. The steps to be taken by the Egyptian Government to carry out the announced evacuation of Khartoum are quite uncertain, and the despatch of a high functionary to the Upper Nile has been alternately announced and denied. Some sanguine persons have even hinted that the sweeping retreat recommended by Sir EVELYN BARING’s proved fondness for that variety of military and political movement is still doubtful. But very little that is positive can be said to be known, and everything seems to show that the English Ministry, once more terrified at having done something which has the appearance of decision, are once more seeking the relief of doing nothing at all. There is, indeed, no subject on which members of the Ministry seem to be so shy of acting, speaking, or even thinking with decision. Perhaps this shyness is not altogether unintelligible on the part of politicians who have bombarded a city in the name of peace, and occupied a large slice of a continent under cover of protests against the extension of the English Empire. But that is not the present point. That Ministers either have nothing definite to say about Egypt, or are afraid to say it, may be seen clearly enough from Mr. CHAMBERLAIN’s Newcastle speeches. To do Mr. CHAMBERLAIN that justice which it is a pleasure for all but Radicals to do to opponents, he is not usually given to cant or to vagueness of speech, and (for a Radical) he is not by any means a member of the Peace-and-Retirement party. It would appear that he chiefly objects to the extension of the Empire when that extension is the work of Tories. This being the case, and remembering Mr. CHAMBERLAIN’s fashions of speech about such subjects as the House of Lords, or the presence of members of the Royal Family at popular gatherings, or the conduct of the Government in encouraging the Land League, a guileless student of politics might have turned to Mr. CHAMBERLAIN this week in the hope of hearing what the Government really proposes to do with Egypt, and something like a defence of the proposal. Great would have been that guileless one’s disappointment. Mr. CHAMBERLAIN’s contribution to the Egyptian problem is confined to a eulogy on the blessings of self-government, which would have been equally appropriate or inappropriate to any lips, any time, any place, and any circumstances.

In one quarter, however, there are some symptoms which may be called relatively cheering. Disgraceful as has been the conduct of the Egyptian, and still more of the English, Government in regard to BAKER PASHA’s relief expedition, inebecile as was the delay in sending it out and the insufficiency of its scale and equipment, no one who knew

anything of its commander could give up all hope for it. If the thing was difficult, BAKER PASHA would do it at once; if it was impossible, he, if anybody, was likely to make it possible. It would appear that, with the help of Admiral Sir WILLIAM HEWETT, an officer no less able and energetic than himself, BAKER PASHA has actually got the scanty, motley, dispirited, and ill-supplied body of men under his control into something like shape, and that the relief of Sinkat and Tokha is ceasing to be hopeless. By arranging with Abyssinia, the difficulties of reaching the Nile have been reduced to a minimum, and by working partly on the cupidity and partly on the fanaticism of the tribes between the river and the coast, there appears to be some chance of subduing, or at least coping with, the rebellion in the Eastern, as distinguished from the Western, Soudan. That, had vigour been shown either at Cairo or in London, this might have been done long ago is quite certain; that, even as it is, the means at the disposal of the Admiral and the General are disgracefully inadequate is true likewise. The very measures which BAKER PASHA is taking are, as will be shown presently, imperilled and to a certain extent defeated by the still-maintained determination to abandon the provinces which have been partially civilized at the cost of so much blood and treasure. But still there is, at any rate in this corner of Egypt, the pleasant spectacle of an Englishman who knows what he has to do, has the most unflinching intention of doing it, and is leaving no stone unturned in the process of getting it done. BAKER PASHA is unfortunately not an English officer in name; it is fortunate if there are no English officers in whose hands the honour of England is less safe than in his.

But it must be evident to all but the most thoughtless that the very plans which, with the sanction and co-operation of Admiral HEWETT, who is an English officer, he has adopted, imply, and that the carrying out of these plans will more and more imply, a modification of the mere helter-skelter scuttling recommended by Sir EVELYN BARING. The object of the Abyssinians, and the only price at which their co-operation can be expected or reasonably demanded, is that their frontier shall be safe not only from Egyptian misconduct, but from barbarian anarchy. It is impossible for General BAKER to guarantee, as he is said to have guaranteed, that the line from Massowah to Kassala shall be rendered perfectly secure if Kassala and other posts in the interior are to be given up. In the same way the relinquishment of Sennaar and the Blue River to anarchy, or a militant Mahomedan Government under the MAHDI, is anything but likely to conciliate King JOHN and his subjects. The practical difficulties in the way of evacuating Khartoum are so great that some sanguine persons hold them likely to be, after all, the salvation of the Soudan; and the more the project of abandonment is considered, the less does it recommend itself, not merely to those who are described by Mr. CHAMBERLAIN and Herr KARL BLIND as annexationists. The possibility, to say no more, of other European nations putting in for the salvage of the Soudan (a possibility as to which there are some significant facts) may be disdained by partisans of the Government. But there is another matter to be considered, which is more in their way. General GORDON is going out to the Congo with the practical sanction of the English Government, which has to everybody’s satisfaction relaxed in his favour the rules of the service. The scheme on which he is going is a peculiar one,

for it is avowedly neither an exploring expedition, nor a commercial expedition, nor a missionary expedition. General GORDON is going out to fight—to pursue his favourite and more than once successful plan of arming slaves against slave-dealers. No opinion is here offered as to the advisableness of this proceeding. But when an English officer is practically lent for such a purpose, it must be assumed that the Government lending him wishes well to that purpose. Now General GORDON's campaign against the Niam-Niam, the great man-hunting and slave-trading people of Central Africa, will be carried on in what may be called for those regions the neighbourhood of the Egyptian provinces which it is proposed to abandon. The nearest outpost of civilization to the Niam-Niam is the Egyptian province of Bahr-el-Ghazal. This the latest news declare to be still held, though the Governor, who has but a few hundred troops at his disposal, has asked for reinforcements, which he is extremely unlikely to receive just at present. Now, if Bahr-el-Ghazal and the so-called Equatorial Provinces (which are reported quiet) are given up finally—and they must be given up if Khartoum, the gate of both, is not held—all chance of establishing connexion between the Egyptian provinces on the Nile and General GORDON's new militant anti-slavery operations on the Congo vanishes. At the moment when one stronghold of the slave trade is being attacked another, and an even larger and more important one, which has been conquered, is being relinquished. It has been said that no opinion is offered in this place on the expediency of anti-slave-trade crusades. But the fact is that they commend themselves to a large number of persons in England who are not usually very anxious for the extension of the Empire as an empire, and that, therefore, when their interest happens to coincide with the Imperial interest, two classes of politicians who do not often work together may do so. The point for which they should at present work is the retention by Egypt of Khartoum.

MR. CHAMBERLAIN ON MERCHANT SHIPPING.

THE wiser among Mr. JOSEPH CHAMBERLAIN's friends must surely wish that his oratory would be strictly limited to unfriendly audiences of competent critics. The knowledge that he is addressing people who would resent jibes and laugh at claptrap has a most wholesome effect on the Radical leader. The agitator disappears in temporary eclipse, and the PRESIDENT of the BOARD of TRADE comes forward a picture of courtesy and fairness of mind. It was in this more benign aspect that Mr. CHAMBERLAIN showed himself to his hosts at the County Hotel, Newcastle, on Wednesday. He had to speak to the representatives of the merchant shipping interest, and he had to do it with the knowledge that his statements would be listened to by men who were perfectly qualified to criticize them, and who would have no scruple in contradicting him. Accordingly Mr. CHAMBERLAIN delivered a long speech on the shipping trade, which does him considerable credit. Some of the praise deserved by the speech should be given to the audience, which pulled the speaker up very short when he showed a tendency to orate like what he was careful to assert he is not, a mere Radical agitator. Mr. CHAMBERLAIN profited by these hints, and for the most part he avoided sweeping assertions and mere invective. If he had adopted the same tone when he first began to deal with the shipping question, he would have been under no necessity to explain at Newcastle that he had never suspected the majority of shipowners of sending their vessels out in an unseaworthy state. The PRESIDENT of the BOARD of TRADE is surprised that anybody should suppose him capable of so rash an assertion. The shipowners have probably not forgotten how Mr. CHAMBERLAIN scolded the deputation from Liverpool, and they have doubtless read the Memorandum of the Board of Trade. As they listened to Mr. CHAMBERLAIN's expostulations they may have recalled these things to mind, and laughed a little at the knowing innocence of so experienced a gentleman. On the whole, however, they probably came to the conclusion that Mr. CHAMBERLAIN is an excellent President of the Board of Trade when he is firmly squeezed.

Now that he has been brought to treat the question with some degree of moderation there is a fair chance that Mr. CHAMBERLAIN's new Merchant Shipping Bill may prove not only innocent, but useful. He is still resolved to include a great deal in it which will be vigorously opposed in

the House of Commons. The clauses to provide against over-insurance will certainly be severely criticized, however carefully they may be drawn. It will be by no means easy to deal with this question without running a serious risk of doing more harm than good. Nobody denies that a certain number of ships are sent to sea in a bad state, and so heavily insured that their loss would bring a considerable profit to the owner. Under these conditions it is manifestly his interest that the vessel should be lost, and a very wicked man may deliberately neglect her. The vast majority of shipowners would readily acknowledge that offenders of this kind should be severely punished; but a gross injustice would be committed if the whole class were to be punished at the same time and with equal severity for the offences of a small minority. But unless Mr. CHAMBERLAIN's Bill is drawn up with more than human skill, that is what will probably happen. If, with the object of giving the owner a substantial pecuniary interest in the safety of the ship, he is not to be allowed to insure her to her full value, the whole body will be compelled by law to run risks such as are imposed on no other industry, and that in the face of the fact that no other is so liable to accidents. Mr. CHAMBERLAIN took no notice of the strongest argument against the existence of a very extended practice of over-insuring. Heavy insurances entail the payment of high premiums, and impose great risks on the underwriters. It can scarcely be supposed that the lower kind of owners can afford to pay the large sums required under the system of excessive insurance, and it is still less likely that the underwriters would make a practice of assuming crushing responsibilities.

Mr. CHAMBERLAIN made the most of a rather hasty concession on the part of the deputation of Liverpool shipowners, who agreed that a well-built and properly-fitted vessel ought never to founder. He not unnaturally perhaps considered himself justified by this statement of fully-qualified witnesses to assert that every ship which does founder is unseaworthy to the knowledge of the owner. Neither the words of the Liverpool deputation, nor the figures of Mr. Dawson's pamphlet, which Mr. CHAMBERLAIN also quoted, bear out this opinion. It is too probable that the modern iron steamer is not, on the whole, so fit to bear the heavy work of cargo-carrying at sea as the old wooden sailing craft, but no part of the blame for that can fairly be thrown on the owners. It is, besides, absurd to say that a well-fitted ship cannot founder. An iron steamer at least can be reduced to a sinking state in a few minutes by a wrong order from the officer in charge, or a blunder on the part of the man at the wheel which results in causing her to be pooped. The extension of the Employers' Liability Act to shipowners will also certainly meet considerable opposition. At present the state of the law bears hard on the sailor who may be thrown in a state of destitution on the hands of an English Consular officer in some foreign country, and has to be sent home in the most inconvenient way, and with a minimum of clothes supplied at the public expense. There can also be no doubt that great hardship is at times caused to the wives and families of men who are lost at sea. But it may be questioned how far either the men or their families would gain by an extension of the Employers' Liability Act to shipowners. The owner could only be made responsible when the wreck of the ship could be distinctly traced to the negligence of the captain. When a ship sails and is never heard of again, who shall decide that she was lost by negligence? If the owner is to be made responsible for the families of the men whenever a ship is lost, his business will have a burden thrown on it such as is borne by no other in this country. The parallel which Mr. CHAMBERLAIN drew between the shipowner and the mineowner is not exactly complete. The owner of a coal mine has it always in one spot, and can look after it himself if he pleases. The owner of a ship has to part with the direct control over his property for months together. There can be no doubt that more might and should be done for the men who are rendered destitute by shipwreck, and for the families of such as have lost their lives at sea; but it is not very obvious how the promised Bill will give respectable shipowners better reasons for being careful in the choice of their masters than they are at present. As for the more reckless traders—the one-ship Companies, which are responsible for most of the mischief—something more than liability to pay damages in case of wreck will be needed to keep them in order. That something will have to take the form of an efficient machinery to stop unseaworthy

ships from leaving port, and to punish the people who use them as a means of making profit.

This machinery Mr. CHAMBERLAIN proposes to supply in the form of a Court, to be formed of one representative of the Board of Trade and one delegate of the shipowners in each port. When both agree their verdict will be without appeal, but in case of disagreement either party can refer the question to a superior Commission. With superfluous good-nature, Mr. CHAMBERLAIN informed his hearers that if they did not like his plan, they might refuse to accept it. In that case he would withdraw it at once. The offer might be made with perfect safety, since few shipowners are likely to prefer the present cumbrous and slow system of Board of Trade inspection to that proposed by Mr. CHAMBERLAIN. It is early to decide finally on the probable merits of this promised Court of First Instance, and it may be taken for granted that more than one will have to be established in some ports; but, on the whole, it looks as if it ought to work rapidly and without friction or red-tape. The new Merchant Shipping Bill is to be referred to the lucky Grand Committee on Trade, which will have another opportunity to show how well it can deal with a business measure. It will have the experience of the past Session to guide it, and the warning example of the fate of the Bankruptcy Act, which is already in working order, and is already accused of confounding existing confusion, to keep it in a modest frame of mind as to the probable good to be obtained by its exertions.

SPAIN.

THE defeat of the Spanish Ministry is decisive; but it is not yet certain whether the Moderate Liberals or the Conservatives will reap the fruits of victory. Señor CANOVAS DEL CASTILLO and Señor SAGASTA wound up the debate in elaborate speeches after the rupture between the Ministry and the majority of his hearers had been fully disclosed. It is to be regretted that the Conservative leader should have professed his readiness to accept in certain contingencies either universal suffrage or the impracticable Constitution of 1869; but possibly admissions which appear to be dangerous may have been limited by the context of his speech. Unless a coalition takes place between CANOVAS DEL CASTILLO and SAGASTA, it may, after all, be necessary for the KING to try a dissolution. The Republicans seem not to have acquired additional strength, notwithstanding the internal differences of the supporters of the dynasty. From the beginning of the confused debate which has occupied so many days, the speech of the greatest Republican orator has been expected with interested curiosity. The disappointment which seems to have ensued was not caused by any failure of rhetorical volubility or force. Señor CASTELAR has long been considered by his countrymen, and by some foreigners who have heard him, the greatest speaker of his time and country. In fluency and readiness he is not even surpassed by Mr. GLADSTONE; and Spanish taste approves of sentimental and imaginative decorations which would scarcely be tolerated in the House of Commons. Expositions of the inherent superiority to other nations of the country to which an orator happens to belong would possibly shock the modesty, as it would certainly jar against the business-like instincts, of an English assembly. The Spanish Parliament has been engaged in discussing a motion which is nearly equivalent to a vote of confidence in the Government. It is not surprising that the debate should have extended beyond ordinary limits; but it could perhaps scarcely have been expected to include an exposition of the inherent pre-eminence of the Latin races. It is not stated whether Señor CASTELAR condescended to such trifles as the question whether the pay of the army should be increased, or to compare the personal claims of different candidates for the office of Prime Minister. It would appear that the Republican party, as far as it is represented by Señor CASTELAR, is not disposed to acquiesce in the continuance of the Monarchy. Some members of the party have professed to tolerate a mode of government which they theoretically disapprove as long as the national institutions were otherwise democratic. It is to be regretted that one of the most eminent Republican leaders should think another revolution indispensable.

Señor CASTELAR, though he has recently compromised himself in the estimation of Englishmen by his wanton apology for Irish assassination, has always been deemed an honest politician. An extravagantly copious writer

and speaker necessarily makes many mistakes; to cool observers of political matters, a passionate devotion to the name of a Republic seems unintelligible and absurd; but it is known that Continental Republicans are often fanatics; and CASTELAR had before his late escapade in the matter of Ireland never professed the Jacobinical creed. On the only occasion of his active interference in politics, he earned just credit by his patriotic repudiation of all the professions and theories of his life. Having by a strange series of events become the chief of a Republic which was rapidly tending to anarchy, the celebrated orator at once suppressed Parliamentary discussion, and ruled the country for some months as a self-appointed dictator. It was unfortunate that conscientious scruples induced him after a time to revive an incapable Legislature, which was consequently soon afterwards, to the universal satisfaction, turned out of doors by an honest general officer at the head of two or three regiments. Since that time Señor CASTELAR has been content to maintain his former principles without seeking to precipitate violent change. From the condensed account of his recent speech, it is difficult to judge whether he thinks that the time is come for a renewed attempt to establish the Republic. Some part of his invective seems to have been personally directed against the KING, and his prejudice against monarchy tempted him to commit the gross impropriety of attacking the German EMPEROR.

It is difficult to believe that the most rhetorical of theorists seriously wishes to found a policy on lingual or ethnological relations. It is certain that Frenchmen, Spaniards, and, it may be added, Roumanians, all derive their language from the Roman conquerors of their respective countries. In Spain and France the original dialects have disappeared, except as far as they are traced in the current language by sagacious philologists. The Italians, having no barbarous speech to be exterminated, may most properly be designated as the inheritors of the Latin name. The blue blood of which Spaniards were once proud flowed in the veins, not of Romans, but of Goths; but it is true that the Northern tribes failed to change the language of their subjects. It is enough for an orator to record points of likeness, and to overlook divisions and discrepancies. In a certain sense the modified Latin tongue may be considered a bond of union; and perhaps some Spaniards may be gratified by the arbitrary assertion, not only that the Latin race is not only superior to other Europeans, but that it ought to be allied against Teutons, Scandinavians, and other alien populations. Nearly twenty years have passed since a political projector, not less ingenious than Señor CASTELAR, used precisely the same assumptions and arguments for the suppression of a Republic and the substitution of an Empire. NAPOLEON III., amongst other reasons for making an Austrian Archduke Emperor of Mexico, declared that the institutions which then prevailed in France were suitable to the political wants of the Latin race. The Indians, who form nine-tenths of the population of Mexico, were to become subjects of an Emperor, on no other ground than that those among them who had acquired any civilized language understood or spoke a dialect of Spanish, which, again, was a dialect of Latin. Flourishes of this kind, as far as they have any meaning, may be reduced to the proposition that France ought to be preferred to Germany, because it is at present a democratic Republic. It is true that in Spain and in Italy an ancient dynasty is still seated on the throne; but Republicans hope that the nation which in its own judgment is the head of the Latin race will have sufficient influence to transfer its own institutions to the allies whom Frenchmen are sufficiently ready to regard as dependents. It is in the hope of such a change that the glorification of the Latin race is employed as a mode of promoting a Republic.

At some point of his declamation it seems to have occurred to Señor CASTELAR that, if the Latin races were to form a cluster of allied Republics, their Teutonic neighbours would be entitled or bound to enter into a hostile league of their own. English is a Low German language, and, according to the linguistic scheme of politics, the English nation is naturally united by a permanent alliance with the German Empire. Señor CASTELAR, having as little ground of quarrel with Germany as with England, wishes to confine his hostility to one of the two kindred Powers. According to his doctrine, England and America ought to help to keep Germany in check, though in both countries a Teutonic language is universally spoken. There is little satisfaction in criticizing capricious rodomontade. Probably Señor CASTELAR may have had a definite purpose, and

he may have been understood by his audience. Through a cloud of words it is possible to discern a censure on the policy of the late Government, and especially on its share in the KING's visit to Germany. The Marquis of LA VEGA DE ARMIJO, who, as Foreign Minister, was officially responsible for the journey, replied to some of Señor CASTELAR's attacks, in accordance with the fact, that the honorary colonelcy of the celebrated Uhlan regiment was selected only because there happened to be no other vacancy. Neither the KING nor his Minister intended to offer any slight to France; but in party contests it is usual, and perhaps not unjust, to impute to opponents the unforeseen consequences as well as the deliberate purpose of their acts.

Nothing can be further from the thoughts of any political party in England than to take part in any Latin or anti-Latin combination. The only English interest which is likely to be affected by the Ministerial or Parliamentary contest in Spain is of a prosaic and practical nature. The commercial convention which had been provisionally concluded with Señor GOMEZ has since been disapproved by a narrow majority in the Council of State. The arguments for and against the measure were probably confined to a comparison of political forces, and the decision of the Council, which is a strictly consultative body, is principally important as it indicates the comparative strength of parties. It seems that the Fusionists or followers of SAGASTA control the Council of State; and it is, therefore, inferred that the policy of the late Foreign Minister will be revived now that the present Government is defeated. The Marquis of LA VEGA DE ARMIJO, whatever may be his leanings toward Germany or France, or the Latin races, was always opposed to the extension of commercial intercourse with England. His return to power would undoubtedly be fatal to the Convention. It is possible that the result of the present party contest may be affected by the apparently irrelevant issue of favoured-nation treatment and of the alcoholic standard. The Catalonians care more for the exclusion of English goods than for the Latin races; while the wine-growers are, with good reason, anxious to facilitate the exportation of their produce. A certain number of votes given on economic grounds may perhaps derange the calculations of party managers. At this distance it is impossible to judge whether the wine-growers or the manufacturers possess greater Parliamentary strength. It is true that the opinion of the Council of State is not binding on the Cortes; but there is some reason to fear that the same party predominates in both bodies.

MINISTERS AND OPPOSITION.

SOME important speeches have been delivered during the past week; and it is observable that, on the whole, those delivered by the leaders of the Opposition have a very decided advantage, one much greater than in recent tournaments of the kind. It is true that only one Minister of the first rank, Mr. CHAMBERLAIN, has spoken against the leaders of the Opposition in both Houses. For Sir CHARLES DILKE, who seems to have passed a singularly uncomfortable evening on Thursday in trying to gloss into decency the utterances of Mr. THOROLD ROGERS and Mr. JOSEPH ARCH, can hardly be counted. But the difference referred to is not in mere number of guns or weight of metal; it is in the spirit, aim, and rapidity of the firing. Mr. CHAMBERLAIN, at Newcastle, had all the advantage of sympathetic audiences (save on one occasion, when he did not talk politics); and the world has been informed that he came specially to receive, and did receive, the condolences and consolations of his party on the attacks which wicked men have lately been making on him. This should have been encouraging. But, whereas Mr. CHAMBERLAIN at his last appearance in public was, and was acknowledged to be, emphatically cock-a-hoop, he was on Tuesday and Wednesday not cock-a-hoop at all. He told a legend about a little boy and a bogie and a jam-pot in reference to the Caucus, or the mob, or something of that kind, from which it appears that, instead of the Caucus or the mob eating up the Tories, the Tories are going to eat up the Caucus. It may be imagined that, if any one quarrels with the moral of this apologue, it will not be persons of the Tory faith. Mr. CHAMBERLAIN tried, and with conspicuous ill success, to prove that the cry for reform is anything but the result of a feeling on the part of Ministers that they must strengthen themselves before a new election,

and of a knowledge on their part that the existence of Mr. CHAMBERLAIN's favourite instrument enables them to simulate at pleasure the national demand which does not exist. About Egypt, about Ireland, even about the House of Lords, with a view to the presence of a Whig noble of rather doubtful allegiance, Mr. CHAMBERLAIN was, as nearly as it is possible for him to be, apologetic. With this attitude, considering its rather unusual seemliness, it would be ungracious to quarrel. When Mr. CHAMBERLAIN (softened it would appear by a short excursus on the cultivation and decorative use of flowers in which he indulged) asks Tories seriously whether he, Mr. CHAMBERLAIN, is not an Englishman, it is certain that he is on the right track. For, if Mr. CHAMBERLAIN will remember that he is an Englishman (which in common with his colleagues he seems to have forgotten on several occasions), he may depend upon it that a good deal of the criticism with which he has been met will be spared him in future, both by Tories and by other persons. And if in his turn he will remember that his antagonists, even if for their sins they happen to be dukes or royalists, are Englishmen also, a still further step will be made towards a state of reconciliation and general friendliness which it is delightful to contemplate.

It would appear that Mr. CHAMBERLAIN's chief adversaries are not in an equally conciliatory frame of mind, and the contrast is perhaps instructive. Ministers have the opening of Parliament before them, and, despite the loud declarations of their own unanimity with which they indulge the world, and the louder declaration of the unanimity of the country with which some of their followers respond, they know perfectly well that the opening of Parliament means a very difficult business. Lord SALISBURY put their difficulties at Dorchester with a frankness and a precision which militant politicians are not accustomed to use unless they are pretty sure of their ground; and Sir STAFFORD NORTHCOTE and Mr. GIBSON, a little further west, simultaneously showed that the Opposition has at last perfectly grasped the situation, and is clearly determined to make the most of it. It is of course impossible for any one to say what will happen in the most mechanically-elected and the most mechanically-drilled Parliament that England has yet seen. But, in the first place, and as a general thing, it may be said that a Minister who deliberately proposes to carry a Franchise Reform Bill on the great scale, a Redistribution Bill, and a Bill for revolutionizing the municipal affairs of the capital, to mention nothing else, in the fifth and following Sessions of a Parliament undertakes what he is very unlikely to perform. And this conclusion is certainly not weakened by the consideration of the particular circumstances of the case in regard to the Reform Bill itself. There is, in the first place, the question of enfranchisement with redistribution or enfranchisement before redistribution. It is assumed that the Caucus and the Radical newspapers will threaten, or have threatened, the majority into acquiescence with the plan which the Government, for obvious reasons, prefers; but this is perhaps a little premature. Secondly, there is the Irish difficulty. If Ireland is not included, the Government will meet with determined opposition from the Irish members and the extreme Radicals. If Ireland is included, the Bill will seem madness to that considerable minority in the country which does not take its criteria of political sanity simply from Mr. GLADSTONE's convenience. In the background there is the difficulty involved in the almost public threat of the Ministry, in case the Bill be rejected in the Upper House, to defy constitutional practice and refuse to go to the country. These three main difficulties are partly divisible into, and partly can be supplemented by, others, too numerous to mention, but perfectly discernible by any one who is familiar with the temper and the history of English Parliaments. The confidence of the Radical party, on the other hand, is founded on two things only. It is thought possible to browbeat or pester members into voting for a measure which probably not two hundred men in Parliament think to be really called for, and it is believed that Mr. GLADSTONE's headstrong belief in himself, and his colleagues' conviction that without him they cannot hope to retain or regain power, will encourage the Ministry to set precedent and decency at defiance in any way necessary to hustle the Bill through. On the other hand, no writer or speaker on the Liberal side has attempted with the smallest success to show that any change in the electorate or the distribution of seats has been made necessary by the tenor of recent legislation, by the character of Parliament,

or by the urgent demand of the persons and places now said to be unrepresented.

In face of this signal failure it is, to say the least, idle to taunt Conservatives, and Liberals who are willing to rest and be thankful, with neglect to answer a case which has never been put. There appears to be a belief in the Radical mind that persons of the two persuasions just mentioned are in some way afraid to state their real views on the subject. What reason there may be for that persuasion certainly does not appear. No reasonable Conservative or Liberal of the old type would hesitate to say frankly that he considered an enlargement of the franchise at the present time an evil *per se*. When this is stated, the usual reply is either the stale phrase about trusting the people—a phrase vaguely suggestive of a political confidence trick of a new kind—or else Mr. CHAMBERLAIN's somewhat newer defence that the Radicals are the real saviours of society. That description is not one of such a history that Liberals proper or Tories should grudge it to Mr. CHAMBERLAIN and his party. And it may probably suggest that saviours of society usually prepare their salvation by the employment of another class of persons—the tools who bring about the state of disorder from which the saviours save. There is, moreover, one other curious fallacy which has been repeated constantly of late. The opponents of reform have been told over and over again that they have opposed it twice before and have been shown to be wrong each time. This calm assurance that what has happened necessarily ought to have happened is a little peculiar in Radicals. Of course no opponent of Reform would for a moment admit that the results of 1832 or of 1867 prove him wrong. He would say that the circumstances in the first case were entirely different, and that the history of the second distinctly proves that both in home and foreign policy an enlarged electorate is dangerous to the best interests of the country. It is in this conviction much more than in any party feeling—which indeed does not apply to Liberal opponents of Reform at all—that the strength of the Opposition consists. And it is this feeling which justifies them fully in using any constitutional means whatever in defeating, delaying, or modifying the measure. It is said that it must be passed some day. A man must die some day; but he need not on that account take poison to-morrow, or hold out his throat without a struggle to the knife of the first comer of homicidal tendencies.

FRANCE AND CHINA.

THE French operations in Tonquin are progressing very slowly indeed; but there are signs that they are at last beginning to approach a decisive crisis. Up to the present the various events of the campaign have been curiously barren of results. The capture of Sontay led, apparently, to nothing, or next to nothing. Certain Parisian newspapers were excited by the victory, and began to speculate on schemes of conquest of the most ambitious kind. It was proposed on all sides to bring China to a proper frame of mind by seizing some island on its coast. The whole business seemed so simple to literary gentlemen in Paris that they talked as if the only difficulty to be encountered was the difficulty of choice. Within the last fortnight there has been a marked change in the tone of the French press. The threats, like the victories of Admiral COURBET, have led to nothing. It is possible that the MAHDI, who has given us such an opportune and convincing demonstration of the necessity of an English occupation of Egypt, has also been so good as to postpone trouble in the Far East. The chance of restoring the Dual Control has seemed so well worth following up that the attention of France has been temporarily drawn off from Tonquin. It is also permissible to suppose that the more pacific tone of the Parisian press was at least partly due to the prompt discovery that China was not indisposed to accept the threatened challenge. Although, according to the Marquess TSENG, the Government at Peking was unable to take Admiral COURBET's word for what had happened at Sontay, and was compelled by etiquette to wait for the reports of its own agents, it has shown no such scepticism or respect for forms and ceremonies when a French occupation of Formosa or Hainan was talked of. Garrisons have, it is said, been despatched to these places, and the coast towns are being put in a state of defence. The eight thousand men sent to Hainan are probably not disciplined in any serious sense of the word, but they are provided with good

rifles, and would be quite as formidable as the Black Flags, whom the French have not found by any means easy to beat. At the same time the Chinese Government is reported to be taking active measures to fortify its coast. The approach to the Bogue forts is being blocked up, and other steps of the same nature are being taken in other places. All these precautions show that the Chinese Government has no confidence in its power to limit the war to Tonquin when it has once begun, and also that it is fully aware of the serious character of a struggle with France. If French interests were likely to be seriously injured by a war with China, these measures might have the effect of permanently preserving peace. That is, however, very far from being the case. The French trade with China is insignificant; and if war does really break out, the main loss will fall upon a third party. If, therefore, M. FERRY's Ministry is resolved on an active colonial policy of some sort, it will probably abstain from attacking China as long as there is any prospect of finding an opportunity to intervene in Egypt, since two such enterprises would be too much at the same time. When that fails, the French will return to Tonquin with renewed spirit. Meanwhile it is hardly possible for two nations to continue long brandishing their swords in one another's face without actually coming to blows, particularly when one of the two is barbarian, and the other has a civilized but ignorant contempt for its opponent's barbarism.

In Tonquin military history continues to repeat itself. Admiral COURBET is again advancing, this time with the intention of attacking Bac Ninh, and all that was said before the attack on Sontay is being said once more. We are told that there is a Chinese garrison in the town, and that an attack on it will be treated as a *casus belli*. It may safely be predicted that the result will decide whether any recognized Chinese force is in the town. If Admiral COURBET is beaten back, the credit of the feat will be attributed to the Chinese troops by the Government at Peking and its agents in Europe. In the other case, we shall be assured again that the French have only had to deal with the Black Flags as yet, and that the serious trial of facing the Imperial soldiers has yet to come. It would be interesting to learn why the Admiral did not advance immediately on Bac Ninh after the capture of Sontay. The story that he was waiting for reinforcements hardly deserves to be accepted. Even if he was not strong enough to advance, it does not follow that he was under the necessity of retreating. A fairly satisfactory explanation of his tactics may, perhaps, be found in the report that one of the Tonquinese towns within his lines had been sacked by pirates. The French are, in fact, engaged in a regular guerrillero warfare of the traditional kind. They can defeat their enemy in the field with no very great difficulty, but as soon as they concentrate their forces for operations on a considerable scale, they are surrounded by swarms of partisans, who cut their communications and worry them on every side. It is only possible to get rid of such assailants by spreading the army over the country, which practically puts a stop to general operations. A war of this kind can be soon brought to an end if the general is only supplied with men enough; but as yet Admiral COURBET has not been given a sufficient force to do both things at once. When he is advancing on the fortresses, he has to neglect the partisans, and when he turns on them, the fortresses are safe for a time. Meanwhile, Tonquin has discovered that the blessings of civilization, as interpreted by the French, mean anarchy, disorder, and misgovernment of a far more oppressive kind than anything they ever suffered before. The presence of Admiral COURBET, his gunboats, and his soldiers has deprived them of their one chance of remaining at peace. They can no longer make themselves safe by paying blackmail to the pirates without running the risk of offending the French.

While it is daily becoming more obvious that France will not, and cannot, withdraw its troops from Tonquin, the Chinese Ambassador to France and England is fighting his country's diplomatic battles with great spirit and the newest weapons. A recent, and perhaps inspired, biographer of the Marquess TSENG has informed the world that the men of his province never, under the severest trials, neglect the work of progress. The assertion is fully borne out by the tactics of the Ambassador, who has been indulging freely in the modern diplomatic practice of using the press. Although he is the representative of the most conservative of States, the Ambassador has obviously nothing to learn even from an American statesman as to how to make the most of

an interviewer or a friendly editor. After favouring the *Times* with much useful information, and a good deal of political speculation, he has now turned to the German press.

Although the Marquess TSENG has good modern precedent for mixing journalism with diplomacy in this way, he would on the whole have been wiser to keep to the safe old paths. Possibly from want of experience in an unfamiliar art, he has made several mistakes, which may have serious consequences for himself and his country. It is never wise in a diplomatist to express a decided opinion in a public way unless he is also able to back it up by force. Prince BISMARCK may warn and threaten in leading articles, but that is because he is Prince BISMARCK, and everybody knows how much more serious is his bite than his bark. The Chinese Ambassador is in a different position, and may have to learn that it is a dangerous thing to conjure with the magician's rod unless you know all his spell. It was also obviously imprudent to begin appealing to the German press unless he had fair reason to count on German support. This step had an appearance of threatening France with the terrors of its old enemy, which was extremely imprudent. Nothing would give the French more pleasure than to do something which would show the world that they are not in the least afraid of Germany, provided they could do so without fighting its army. The Chinese Ambassador has given them just such an opportunity. He has appealed to Germany for help, and has been told that he cannot get it. The appeal has been made in the most open way, as if with the intention of irritating the French, and no practical good has been got by it. The result can only be to embitter them against his country still further, and diminish what little chance there ever was that peace can be maintained without a complete surrender on the part of China.

THE DIOCESE OF SOUTHWELL.

THE new see of Southwell is as good as created, and so five out of Sir RICHARD CROSS's six bishoprics are accomplished facts. This success led to the usual patter of carping letters. The new see comprises the two counties of Nottinghamshire, which belonged till forty years ago to the see and to the province of York, but was then transferred to the see of Lincoln and the province of Canterbury, and Derbyshire, which has since the twilight of English Christianity followed the fortunes of Lichfield, from which, much as that diocese has been curtailed, it never before was parted. So it only ceased to be a member of the southern province for the few years, long ago, of Mercian supremacy during which Lichfield itself was an archbishopric. Even after the severance Lincoln and Lichfield will be heavy charges, and Southwell will range over two counties, both of them containing a big and growing county town, only parted from each other by a few miles, and each exceedingly jealous of the rival borough. Nottinghamshire also boasts of a large and beautiful minster, collegiate in its dignity and constitution from Saxon times down to our own day, standing in the snug little town of Southwell. This minster has been carefully restored, and within a few yards of it stands the still surviving palace of the Archbishops of York, which has lately been by great private munificence purchased for the use of the new Bishopric, while other houses suitable for the members of the Cathedral are to be found in this town of old gentility. Accordingly Southwell was by Sir RICHARD CROSS's Act declared the seat of the new Bishopric, a position for which it had been recommended by Lord Powis's Commission nearly forty years ago. So now the sound of grumbling rolls hoarsely in from the rival local capitals.

We do not profess ourselves to be thoroughly satisfied with the scheme as it stands. It would have been, we believe, better to have dared the bolder policy of proposing two sees, including perhaps a transfer to Derbyshire of some of the enormously populous shire of Stafford. As it is Derbyshire only gains a loss. It never had a Bishop of its own, but for some twelve hundred years it has been attached to the historical and famous church of Lichfield; now, while still continuing bishopless, it has to pass over to a new and unorganized see in another county. Still, as anything is better than the old arrangement, Derbyshire, with much wisdom and generosity, has willingly acquiesced in the actual plan, if only as an instalment. Presuming then a Bishopric for Nottinghamshire and Derbyshire, we cannot see what better course could have been taken than to place it at Southwell. A Bishop of Derby would have

been cold-shouldered at Nottingham, and a Bishop of Nottingham would have been told at Derby to go to Coventry. Nothing, on the other hand, prevents the Bishop of Southwell from spending as much of his time as he likes, or as duty calls on him to do, in either town. He may make all the use he can of the great church at Nottingham, and persuade the men of Derby to build one like it. At Southwell itself he will have his house for rest, for country air, for study, and for hospitality; and he will have at his door a noble cathedral church, available for all those purposes of worship and of education which the size of the towns in which the various institutions are placed has not prevented Lichfield itself and Ely and Chichester from purveying to dioceses containing larger and more enterprising towns than the Cathedral city. No sane man has ever proposed to transfer the see of Lichfield to Stoke or Wolverhampton. Why, then, should we, in face of the undoubted antagonism of Nottingham and Derby, refuse fair play to an experiment which only repeats a condition of things with which one of the component counties has so long been familiar? Rigid utilitarianism may decri the necessary connexion between episcopal government and the grandeur, architectural and ritual, of Cathedral churches; but the healthy instinct of Churchmen has always accepted it; and, as in the case of the new see of Truro, has expended no little trouble and money to create it. The combination is ready to hand at Southwell, and if this good fortune were despised, it is probable enough that the irrepressible band of letter-writers would strike a rich vein of sarcasm and lamentation over such a lamentable blunder. For Derbyshire, at all events, the dose is sweetened at not finding itself subjected to what is only a large parish church in lieu of the world-famous Cathedral of Lichfield; and even Nottinghamshire can hardly fail to see the incongruity of possessing such a minster as Southwell and passing it by. Anyhow, the question was virtually decided when the union in one see of two counties was decreed.

STREET ROBBERIES.

IT is seldom that a week passes in which the newspapers do not forcibly remind us of the barbarism which is lying close by our civilization. Civilization, it is true, develops vices of its own which are perhaps, if we look at them rightly, as odious as those which belong to the savage state of mankind. But there is a difference. The habit of the savage is to look upon his fellow-men, unless they belong to the same tribe as himself, as his natural enemies, and to treat them accordingly whenever he gets the chance to do so. And this is precisely the view that a considerable class of persons in this country takes of the rest, and which the rest are simple enough to tolerate. Day after day fresh instances of brutal assaults come before the public. Sometimes they are assaults made with the object of robbery; quite as often they are made for the mere enjoyment of maltreating a fellow-being. The other day a letter appeared in the *Daily News* stating that a respectable working-man was attacked on Hackney Downs by a party of roughs and was badly cut about the face. In the same letter it was said that a girl was also attacked near Stamford Hill and knocked down, but on her screaming the gallant assailants took to their heels. On Tuesday last a letter appeared in the *Times* in which the writer recounted his own experiences and those of others whom he knew. About half-past seven on the evening of Thursday of last week, in the neighbourhood of St. Giles's, when on the way from Pall Mall to Hampstead, he was assaulted by a ruffian who seized his watch, cut the chain, and made off to the nearest alley. The gentleman whose watch was taken gave chase and called on those whom he saw for help. The two men nearest proved, however, to be confederates; and after chasing the robber to the point where he vanished among the slums, it became evident that discretion was the better part of valour, and that it was more desirable to put up with the loss of the watch than to take the risk of a chase in such courts as abound in the neighbourhood of St. Giles's. The same writer gives instances of other assaults and robberies which to his own knowledge have taken place recently in the same district. On the evening before, on the spot where he had himself been robbed, a lady waiting for the omnibus to take her to Hampstead was attacked by a member of the same gang. She was struck on the face, her bag was

opened, and her purse was taken from it. On Christmas Eve last, as we read in the letter, a gentleman was attacked in the same neighbourhood, and was beaten, robbed, and left unconscious by four scoundrels of a similar kind. In the *Times* of the following day further testimony appears to the same effect. On the 3rd of December last another gentleman was returning home northwards from his office in Whitehall, and at about six o'clock, close to St. Giles's, his watch-chain was seized and carried off. He pursued the robber; but, as in the case already quoted, he found himself in a labyrinth of lanes and alleys, in which it proved both useless and dangerous to pursue the thief. The writer consoles himself philosophically with the reflection that the gold chain only was taken from him, but that the watch was fortunately left unstolen. In the *Standard* of Tuesday last there is an article which bears on the same subject, entitled "Midnight London." The writer there discusses fully the various methods of deceit and violence by which the criminal classes contrive to make a living out of those who have something which can be stolen. To say nothing of violent assaults in the streets, the decoys by means of which unsuspecting people are led into situations where they can be conveniently plundered are here, for the hundredth time, set forth. To get a good chance of stealing a watch, the thief asks to know what o'clock it is; and while the simple owner of the watch goes to the lamp-post to give him answer, it is easy enough for the thief to seize it and get away without detection. Or, again, a passer-by is lured off a main thoroughfare by a woman, who persuades him to go down a narrow street or alley, where he finds himself surrounded by half a dozen of her confederates, and pays the natural penalty of his folly. It must be remembered that for one of these cases which comes before the public there are ten in which the individual who is robbed or beaten finds it more convenient to hold his tongue. Even if he has ample evidence to convict the offenders, a regard for his own reputation will often keep him silent. Most men would prefer to lose their watch or their purse rather than have the questions asked which an appearance as prosecutor in the police-court under such circumstances often suggests. There is no doubt that many cases occur of assault and robbery which are never reported to the police, for the simple reason that the sufferer does not care to report them.

Nevertheless, a large number occur which could certainly be prevented by a more efficient organization of the police. A few weeks ago we pointed out that at places in the various districts of London where disorder is frequent or habitual it is not enough for a policeman occasionally to pass by in the course of his beat. It is necessary that a constant watch should be kept. It seems incredible, but is a fact, that, where the policeman is regularly stationed, he is withdrawn precisely about the time when disorder is likely to begin. Thus in districts in which the small hours of the morning are more than usually hideous and perilous, the stationary policeman actually goes off duty at one o'clock. Such protection as the inhabitants of the neighbourhood or the casual wayfarers receive from that time till five o'clock comes from the walking policeman, who may or may not be passing by on his beat at a time when mischief is brewing. In almost every part of London there are points in which the lawlessness and violence of the criminal classes tend to concentrate themselves as in a focus. At such points the supervision of the police needs to be constant, both by day and by night. A mere casual supervision is little better than none at all. The thief or rough finds out quickly enough what are the times and seasons in which he can ply his trade with impunity. When a constable is in sight, he not unnaturally, unless very drunk, restrains himself; but, when once the constable has passed by, he has from half-an-hour to an hour in which to do as he likes. In the greater part of London the occasional presence of a policeman is all that is needed. But in the foci of disorder the permanent and vigilant attention of the police is the only remedy. There are, scattered about London, certain thoroughfares or junctions of streets which are known to be dangerous. Five minutes' walk to the right or to the left of them anybody may go by with perfect safety. These local tastes of the criminal classes are even better known to the police than they are to the public. The average criminal is, like respectable persons, a creature of habit; and the regularity of his proceedings should be met by a corresponding regularity on the part of those whose duty it is to keep him in check.

Much more should be done by the police to keep these

classes in order, and much more should also be done by the administration of the law. For the savages who make the streets of London impassable at certain times and places there is only one penalty which they can understand, and this is the lash. Over and over again it has been shown that nothing else has any practical effect upon them. Imprisonment puts no stigma upon them. They lose no credit among their friends when they come out by having passed a month in gaol. In fact, they return to their old associates with their natures unchanged, and with their constitutions strengthened by a course of regular and temperate living. A man who has been half a dozen times convicted in a police-court loses no caste among those who have gone through the same experience if he is convicted a seventh time. His recurrent convictions are only natural episodes in his career and in theirs. But a whipping is another thing. Apart from the pain, which none of those who suffer it are known, according to prison authorities, to bear manfully, it leaves a moral as well as a physical mark on the man which can be appreciated by everybody, and by none more than by his own special associates. In fact, it is one of the few stigmas which they can appreciate. It comes home to them as nothing else can. Surely, if ever there is a case in which the *lex talionis* may justly be applied, it is in inflicting physical punishment on men who, without provocation, rob, beat, kick, and maim those whose watches and purses they covet. Often, indeed, they have not even the excuse of coveting the property of the persons whom they assault. They beat, kick, and maim them for the pleasure of doing so; and for such offenders there is no kind of cure but many stripes.

COMMONS AND THE PUBLIC.

TWO very well known bits of English scenery, the Malvern Hills and Ilkley Moor, are threatened by the incloser. Perhaps the victories gained some years back over the Inclosure Commissioners have lulled the guardians of common land to sleep. Perhaps these very victories have operated in another way. They have shown the owners of waste land precisely what they can do and what they cannot; and, as a consequence of this, the attacks upon commons are now conducted with greater judgment. As soon as this kind of opposition has to be faced, the public discover how weak they really are. In their own character they have no *locus standi* against the incloser, except so far as he destroys ancient rights of way. The law recognizes certain rights as vested in the commoners; and, if the lord of the manor interferes with these, redress may be had. The public can often promote their own interests by identifying them with those of the commoners. The uses to which the ground is put by those who claim rights of common over it are, for the most part, not of a kind that interferes with its enjoyment by the world at large. Consequently, to preserve a common for the commoners is to preserve it for everybody else. In Ilkley, apparently, the rights asserted by the lord are not inconsistent with the rights enjoyed by the commoners. The inclosures which he threatens would probably leave enough of the surface unoccupied to satisfy their wants. But the public have neither sheep to pasture nor turf to cut, and it is idle to suppose that, by defending rights of this kind, not perhaps seriously threatened, needs of a quite different order can be satisfied. What the public wish to have secured to them is simply the liberty of walking or riding at will over the land. Except in a very few cases, this is a liberty of which the law knows nothing. If it is to be maintained at all, it must be in some way purchased from those whose title is at once more definite and more extensive.

The inhabitants of Malvern have already come to understand this, and a Bill will be introduced next Session to give effect to an arrangement which shall save the Malvern Hills from further encroachment. At Ilkley things have not yet got so far as this. It is only lately indeed that the necessity for bestirring themselves, if they want to keep the moor as it is, becomes apparent. The townspeople had come probably to regard the picturesque hill which rises behind them as their own possession. It was only when the skyline of the ridge became broken by posts bearing notices warning off trespassers that they became seriously alarmed. As yet no harm has been done. An energetic local champion has given public notice that he shall disregard these warnings himself, and advise others to disregard them, and

this challenge has not been taken up. There is no certainty, however, that matters will long remain in this state. The lord of the manor is entitled to shoot game on the moor, and, as grouse are still found there, this is no barren right. It has an appreciable money value, and as such is worth fighting for. The rapid growth of Ilkley itself and its neighbourhood to Leeds must make the moor less and less fit for a game preserve, unless something is done to keep the public off it, and the notices to trespassers were no doubt intended as the first step towards systematic enclosure. Enough was to be left to give the commoners no grievance on which to found an action, and, this precaution once taken, the chances of successful resistance would be but small. It is not at all likely that the lord of the manor will submit to see his property yearly becoming less valuable without making an effort to arrest the process. What is wanted, therefore, is that the Ilkley people should do what the Malvern people have already done. The liberty they wish to maintain for themselves is really one to which their legal right is something less than doubtful. Unless they can show some very unusual title to the enjoyment of the moor, the Courts will decline to interfere, and by that time so much money will have been wasted and so much bad feeling aroused, that it will be difficult, if not impossible, to have recourse to any other method of action. Yet what the Ilkley people claim is nothing more than what it is very much to the public interest that they should have. There are moors in abundance on which rich men may shoot grouse; there are very few on which poor men who can only get half a day's outing from Leeds can ramble at will. To preserve this privilege to such a district as that in which Ilkley stands is a matter of high public moment. Nor ought there to be much difficulty in preserving it. Whatever compensation is fairly due to the lord of the manor for any falling off in the value of his moor ought of course to be paid him; but when the money wherewith to do this is provided, Parliament will be quite ready to give the force of law to the arrangement, if voluntarily concluded, or to impose it upon the lord of the manor, supposing him to withhold his consent. It is not Ilkley alone that is interested in bringing about such a settlement. It is just as much a matter for Leeds, and for those suburbs of Leeds, which are themselves large towns. Nowhere, perhaps, would it be so easy to secure to the public all that is material for them to have. The need of keeping the moor open is too patent to be passed over, and the district is one in which any money that can be required to keep it open can at once be raised.

There is one caution, however, that it may be well to offer, and it is one of which the people of Malvern stand equally in need. We do not wish that either Ilkley Moor or the Malvern Hills should be bought by the public. If that were done, there would be reason to fear that both the one and the other would run very great risk of being spoiled. If they are bought by the public, they must be held by some body on behalf of the public, and as soon as such a body gets possession of land, that land becomes a mere open space, to be laid out and adorned in the most approved style of local landscape gardening. What the public ought to buy is simply the right to keep Malvern Hills or Ilkley Moor as they are. There is no need to prevent the lord of the manor from shooting over the ground just as he does now, or to prevent the commoners from pasturing sheep or cutting bracken just as they do now. It will be quite enough to enact that neither the lord nor the commoner shall ever inclose any part of the ground, or claim any right in it which is inconsistent with its reasonable enjoyment by the public. The purchase of such a right as this is a very much smaller affair than the purchase of the soil, and it ought to cost proportionately less money. But, inasmuch as it gives the public the only thing they want, there is the best possible reason that this, and nothing more, should be bought.

RAILWAY SHAREHOLDERS' ASSOCIATION.

THE Railway Shareholders' Association may probably be useful to those whom it proposes to represent; but the proceedings at its first meeting were not in all respects calculated to promote its objects. Sir EDMUND BECKETT's unrivalled powers of invective and sarcasm appear not to have rusted by comparative disuse; but co-operation in a common purpose is not rendered more zealous by the dis-

closure and exacerbation of internal differences. Chairmen and general managers may, perhaps, sometimes mistake the interests of their constituents; but they are always earnest in their desire to protect and improve the property which they necessarily control. Sir EDMUND BECKETT, who has little sympathy with democratic aspirations, must know that authority is weakened when those by whom it is exercised are described as ridiculous or odious. Having once for all expressed his disapproval of jealousies and rivalries which are certainly not imaginary, Sir EDMUND BECKETT will probably hereafter be one of the most judicious as well as one of the most vigorous leaders of the Shareholders' Association. Anxious holders of railway stock will, if they are well advised, act in concert with the official representatives of the Companies. It may be added that other owners of property, from great capitalists to modest annuitants, ought to hesitate before they join in attempts to tamper with Parliamentary guarantees. Communistic agitators naturally direct their attacks against the victims who seem to them weakest. It is because English landowners are a small numerical minority that the GEORGES and DAVITTS promulgate schemes of plunder which might be dangerous to themselves if they were addressed to the peasantry of France. Freighters who demand arbitrary reductions in railway tariffs are not conscious advocates of communism; but, as far as they implicitly assume the right of the State or the Legislature to readjust according to some vague notion of equity the economic relations of persons and of classes, they become involuntary accomplices of the Democratic Federation.

The recognition of a just and necessary control over railway administration is perfectly compatible with a regard to proprietary rights. The general Acts, as well as the special Acts, define to a great extent the duties which are always made conditions both of incorporation and of the periodical or occasional grant of additional privileges. Several years ago, in pursuance of the Report of a joint Committee of both Houses, the Railway Commission was constituted for the purpose of enforcing the obligations undertaken by the Companies. It may be incidentally remarked that the same Committee remonstrated by anticipation against encroachments on the rights of the Companies, and especially against interference with their legal tariffs. The jurisdiction conferred on the Commission had previously been vested in the Court of Common Pleas; but the experiment was supposed to have failed, because few cases had been decided, or even tried, under the Act of 1853. Some of the judges were prejudiced against the exercise of functions which they regarded as novel; and it was thought that a special tribunal which had nothing else to do would be more efficient than one of the superior Courts. Notwithstanding ill-informed opinion, and in spite of confident assertions, the Railway Commission has proved a failure. The amount of litigation before it has been absurdly small, and its decisions have not commanded public confidence. If the present legal member, or his predecessor, had been allowed to sit alone, his decisions would probably have been received with respect as authoritative interpretations of law; but, as he can always be outvoted by his lay colleagues, the defeated party is naturally disposed to believe that legal rights have been made subordinate to considerations of supposed expediency. As if for the purpose of still further discrediting the tribunal, the Commissioners are not in the habit of delivering separate judgments; so that the only member of the Court who is properly qualified is not responsible for the reasons even of a judgment in which he may possibly have concurred. Questions of great importance, sometimes involving difficult questions of law, are thus disposed of by a body of judges which cannot be compared in competence to a county court. It is not surprising that they have habitually enjoyed a vacation extending perhaps over three-quarters of the year.

It is true that the commercial and industrial community generally desires the maintenance in some form of the Railway Commission, though its duties would be better discharged by a Judge of the High Court, whose services would at other times be available for ordinary judicial purposes. A professional judge, if he were required, as under the present law, to make an annual report to Parliament, would not, like the Commissioner, take the opportunity of always asking for enlarged powers, nor would he criticize the reasons for which some of his judgments might have been reversed on appeal. The questions of economical advantage or practical convenience which sometimes arise would

be at least as satisfactorily decided by a professional lawyer. The legal rights of Companies and traders cannot properly be entrusted to the judgment of a layman. Judges in Courts of Equity command public confidence in the discharge of their administrative functions, because they are competent to distinguish between expediency and law. Mr. LAING, who seems to be more tolerant than other railway chairmen of external interference, is favourable to a certain amount of State control, if it is exercised through the Board of Trade. It is not a little remarkable that he protests in the strongest language against the jurisdiction of the Railway Commission. Even a convert to advanced Radicalism apparently desires that the kind of property which he specially represents should receive judicial protection. Whether the Board of Trade or any other official department would protect the public interest without suffrages or positive rights may be reasonably doubted. Mr. LAING thinks that the functions of the Commission or of the Board of Trade should be almost exclusively administrative. If his plan were adopted, legal rights ought to be determined by the High Court.

Some of the questions which have been settled by the Commissioners concern competing freighters rather than the Railway Companies. It is extremely difficult to determine whether all the ports or all the collieries on a great railway system should be put on an equality in the adjustment of rates, or should retain the whole advantage or detriment of their respective geographical positions. The consumers or consignees would in almost all cases prefer a system of equal competition. On the other hand, it has been plausibly and successfully contended that the carrying Company is guilty of undue preference if it attempts in any degree to counteract the natural advantage of proximity to market. The doubt ought to be solved by a higher authority than the Railway Commission. Until lately the Companies almost always inclined to the policy of equalizing rates over large districts. Managers have had to consider not only the more or less profitable character of local tariffs, but the competition with one another of various ports, markets, and coal-fields. No arrangement in the complex system of railway administration has excited so much dissatisfaction as the preference which is in certain cases given to foreign produce. American corn is brought at a lower rate from Liverpool to London than English corn conveyed for shorter distances; yet the causes of an apparently invidious distinction are simple and obvious. Between those ports the railway competes with the sea, which has cost nothing to make or maintain. The importer and consumer for good reasons prefers railway carriage to the extension of the ship's voyage; but if the difference of charge passes a certain limit the railway will not be used for the traffic. The consequence would be that the sea-borne corn would, as at present, have an advantage in freight over domestic produce. If the Companies were compelled to charge by mileage, the only result would be that they would discontinue their competition with the cheapest mode of conveyance.

Those who engage in controversies relating to railway administration would do well to discontinue the repetition of a commonplace which has done duty for the last forty years, though it contains only half the truth. Competition among Companies is, as all traders and dealers are well aware, not abolished, though it is modified by combination. A few years ago the Midland Company compelled its neighbours and rivals to reduce to a great extent the passenger fares between competing points. It is not known whether the experiment has been profitable to the innovating Company; but it has undoubtedly conferred pecuniary benefit on the trading community, though it was connected with a partial withdrawal of accommodation. Except in the Eastern and North-Eastern counties, every considerable town has secured the competition of two, and sometimes of three, or even four, Companies. The strong feeling against monopoly has within three or four years been conspicuously illustrated by the construction of the Hull and Barnsley railway, which is now to be extended to Huddersfield, and, if Parliament sanctions the measure, to Halifax. Parliamentary Committees have, perhaps, of later years been too ready to authorize unnecessary lines; but their more experienced members well know that a general discouragement of competition would be felt as an intolerable grievance. It may be hoped that the power of authorizing great public works will be always reserved to an independent and non-professional body. There is greater reason to apprehend a miscarriage of justice in the control of railway administration. Mr. CHAMBERLAIN announces a Ministerial Bill for perpetuating the Railway

Commission, and for investing it with additional powers. If the Government is well advised, it will take the opportunity of fundamentally altering the constitution of the tribunal. Laymen are ill qualified for judicial functions, and experts are of all lay judges the most objectionable.

DEATH IN THE PIT.

AS soon as any one draws attention to the abuses of any vested interests, he is certain to be denounced as a wrecker and an impenitent thief. When the vested interests are those which theatre-owners possess in the peril of the public, the critic is called a "panic-monger." Ordinary observation and recent letters in the *Times* make it perfectly certain that when any one goes to the play in some houses he takes his life in his hand. There are degrees of course. Some theatres have sufficient exits; others have inadequate exits; and in others, again, the long, narrow, winding passages leading to but one or two doors positively invite a catastrophe. The habit of cramming the stalls so close together that it is difficult to get in or get out supplies another danger; while men who smoke in all the lobbies might almost as safely smoke in a coal mine.

Can any one deny these propositions? No one can deny them. But when attention is called to this disgraceful state of things, in which men and women are nightly exposed to a horrible death for the sake of saving a few pounds, people cry, "Hush, you will cause a panic." The theatres are very crowded just now, full of women and children. Precisely, and that is the reason why we wish some ordinary precautions to be taken by the managers of theatres. As to panics, these arise when the public knows that in case of an alarm it has little chance of escape. If the theatres had exits sufficiently numerous, wide, and accessible, if all our stages were fitted, as in Germany, with an iron curtain, alarm of fire would cause little or no panic. Are all our theatres thus happily accommodated? Emphatically no. In the long period during which a crowded audience moves, as slowly as a glacier almost, to the rare exits provided, one always hears people ask, foolishly enough, "what would happen in the case of a fire?" Why, every one would be crushed to death or burned; that is the long and the short of it if we may trust the letters which Mr. CLEMENT SCOTT and other correspondents print in the *Times*.

Mr. SCOTT is a dramatic critic and a dramatic author. It is not the interest of dramatic authors or critics that the public love of the theatre should decline. Still, authors and critics are, in the first place, concerned to preserve their lives if possible. Their duties bring them constantly into these closely-wedged rows of stalls, reached by passages like the winding tunnels of rabbit-warrens, and exposed to all the dangers which arise from flaring gaslights, artificial fires, and the burning ends of cigarettes. Critics are not more timid than other people, but they have to risk being burned more frequently than other people. No one can say that they lack experience or that they are hostile to the interests of managers. Their interests lie in the same direction as those of the owners and the officials of theatres. They are thoroughly acquainted with all the stock arguments against taking any trouble in the matter. They have heard a hundred times that to speak of danger is to "cause panic"; that theatres are not often burned while the audience is within them; that hotels are just as dangerous as theatres. To all this critics reply that, if the public is alarmed, the public can stay away from the play. By boycotting death-traps the public could soon make managers keep all the doors open, at an enormous extra expense of a couple of pounds a week. By staying away from houses in which the stalls are crammed together in a kind of wedge the public could teach managers to be more liberal of space. These things the public can do, if it be really panic-stricken. Besides, as we have said already, if theatres were properly organized a panic could not be created. Panics are due to the public knowledge that they who do not escape in the first flight will not escape at all. Again, it is argued that theatres are not often burned while they are full. Perhaps not; but once is too often; and the accidents at Nice and Vienna have not yet been absolutely forgotten. At Nice there was a door specially meant for use in case of fire, but of course the door was locked. In these cases the door always is locked. A correspondent of the *Times* tells the world that he induced an official in one of the London theatres to try to open an escape-door, just by way of experiment. The man readily

attempted the experiment, but of course he had not the key, nor did he even know what had become of the key. In the case of a fire or a panic the results would have been what they were at the Ring Theatre or at Nice. Mr. CLEMENT SCOTT's letter lays emphasis on the same class of dangers, and on the happy-go-lucky management which leaves an audience to make its undirected way through one narrow passage, though other exits are actually open. Even at *matinées* fires may occur, and the expedient of turning out the gas in the passages during a *matinée* (not an unheard-of economy or accident even at the gaudiest houses) cannot be commended. We need lay no stress on the uncontradicted report in the *Times* of Captain SHEAN, who seems to be a kind of amateur, unofficial, unaccredited inspector of theatres. He says he found one in which the exits had not been timed "because the Lord Chamberlain has passed it, and it is all one to us." In the same house there was no water in the buckets, the firemen were unacquainted with the nature of the mechanism of the hydrants, and so forth. All this, as we say, has not been publicly contradicted, and indeed even to contradict such statements, though a gratuitous, is not an enviable advertisement. But on this we lay no more stress than on the last argument for holding our peace, that hotels and other places are as dangerous as theatres. This is an example of the fallacy often pointed out by nursery logicians, "two blacks do not make a white." If there were a class of hotel critics, perhaps they would hold meetings as theatrical critics did not long ago, to denounce the recklessness of managers. Besides, the exits from hotels are at least wide enough. We never heard of people being crushed to death in a hotel because they could not get downstairs for the crowd. Now a crowd jammed in the warren-like burrowings of the subterranean labyrinths that often lead to the stalls would be in a parlous state indeed, especially as the gas would be sure to go out. To provide lights not liable to this accident in the burrows should be within the resources of science. But it would cost money, and therefore we can hardly expect the provision to be universally made.

The truth is that this matter can only be disposed of by "pegging away." The forces of inertia muster strongly on the side of doing nothing for the public safety. The theatre was never more popular, indeed it is too popular, and the public excitement constantly has small local eruptions in the shape of amateur performances. Houses were never more crowded. Hence the temptation to perilous encroachments on space, to squeezing seats together, and placing chairs in gangways. All this means increased receipts, but the recipients are not the more inclined to add to expenses when the cause of expense is not something brilliant, but only something necessary. Many theatres have exits enough, but those exits (supposed to be open in case of fire or alarm) are often hermetically sealed. Now the extra doors can only be of service if the public and the officials are used to seeing them open, and to making their way out by them. But to have these doors always open during performances would demand the presence of more attendants, their wages would be an item in expenditure, and an item for which nothing of a brilliant and attractive nature could be shown. Therefore the doors are kept shut. A respectable attendant has the key, but when he is asked to produce it (as has been seen in one instance) he has not the slightest idea where it is. All this economy is false and niggardly, and may be homicidal.

To burn or chance burning some hundreds of people, for the sake of saving some pounds a week, is a bright example of the character of capitalists and of spirited enterprise. In collusion with this recklessness of the persons who are (or ought to be) responsible is the happy-go-lucky temper of the public. The public "will chance it," as they say, till they are frightened by some general *auto de fé* in a theatre. Then the public gets in a fright, stays away from the play, clamours for precautions and inspections, and has all the extra doors of theatres left open. In a fortnight the public forgets its alarm, the outcry ceases, nothing has been done, the doors are closed again, and the keys are rusting in disused old coats in the houses of the officials. Nothing will ever cure the happy-go-lucky temper, the official contempt of the public and indifference to public safety, nothing short of close and vigilant Government inspection. Constant "surprise visits," followed by fines and withdrawals of licences when the ordinary precautions are neglected, would soon prevent theatres from being potential death-traps. The old folly of *laissez-aller* has broken down

here as elsewhere, because the collective wisdom of the theatre-going public is, like the law denounced by Mr. BUMBLE, "a Hass." It is as well to keep preaching this doctrine before an accident happens. It is as imprudent to lock the doors before a fire as to leave them open till the proverbial steed is stolen.

BACKSWORD AND SCHLAEGER.

ALTHOUGH the sabre is a weapon of much more general use than the small-sword, the art of using it has never been brought to anything like the same perfection. The small-sword can hardly be called a military weapon, whereas a single-edged cutting sword, generally, but not always, fashioned so as to admit of effective thrusting as well, has been the chief arm of European cavalry for more than two centuries. Yet the sabre has been left in comparative neglect. The soldier's official instruction in handling it is mostly confined to the execution of a certain number of conventional cuts and guards. Fencing-masters, with few exceptions, have dismissed it with short and slight notice; the treatment of it in French books, as far as we are aware, is not only scanty but weak. On the whole, it has perhaps fared best in England, where our love of hard and visible knocks, or some other reason, causes the practice of the singlestick to be preferred to that of the foil. But there are compensations in all things. And the sabre has taken out its compensation in England and in Germany in ways curious in themselves and curiously similar. In Germany there is a modified combat with swords, in England an imitated one, under such rules and conditions as to make it quite unlike real warfare, and yet in each case with a distinct seriousness of its own. The conventional restrictions are so much alike that it is not easy to believe the two forms of play to be independent; but we do not know that any evidence exists of historical derivation or connexion. The exercises in question are that of backwording or singlestick as practised, until pretty lately, in the West of England, and that of the Schlager as still practised in the German Universities.

The game of backword is shortly treated of under the name of singlestick in Walker's *Defensive Exercises*. But the classical authority for it is the second chapter of *Tom Brown*, which describes a contest for local championship among the humours of the "yeast" held in the White Horse Vale. As the judicious author tells us, "the weapon is a good stout ash stick with a large basket handle, heavier and somewhat shorter than a common singlestick." Probably the players had forgotten by the beginning of this century what the stick originally represented. The name, however, leaves no doubt of this. "Backsword" was the English name of a sword with a thick back and only one edge, as distinguished from the long double-edged sword commonly worn as late as the seventeenth century; a distinction exactly corresponding to what French authorities state to be the correct usage of *sabre* as opposed to *épée*. We now use the term small-sword, as our ancestors of the last century did, for the three-cornered duelling blade (many people call this modern thrusting sword a rapier, but wrongly; the Spanish and Italian rapier had a narrow double-edged blade, capable of cutting though mainly used for thrusting). But the weapon we speak of as the broadsword or sabre was called by those same ancestors the backsword. This, with other more or less diverting matter, appears in a treatise upon the Useful Science of Defence published by one Captain John Godfrey, which attained a second edition in 1747. The author complains of designs to pirate and undersell his book, and, whether or not he succeeded in preventing these at the time, it is certain that considerable traces of his work occur in later manuals. Probably it would be found by any one who would be at the pains of examining (we do not say it would be worth the pains) that writers on this class of subjects have for generations gone on copying from one another as much and as unintelligently as dictionary-makers. However that may be, Captain Godfrey's reasons for studying the backsword, as well as his not over-lucid counsels about the play itself, show that in his time this weapon was nothing else than the military sabre. The backsword, he says, "is as necessary in the Army, as the other" (the small-sword) "is mischievous in Quarrels, and deadly in Duels. The Small-Sword is the Call of Honour, the Back-Sword the Call of Duty. . . . The Back-Sword must be allowed essentially necessary among the Horse; and I could wish it were more practised, than I find it is. Sure it ought to be a Part of a Trooper's Duty to learn the Back-Sword, as much as of the Foot to learn the common Exercise." Captain Godfrey's personal reason for making the backsword his favourite arm was, however, not a patriotic one. "I have followed chiefly the Practice of the Back-Sword," he says, "because Conceit cannot so readily be cured with the File [a common spelling of foil in eighteenth-century books] in the Small, as with the Stick in that: For the *Argumentum bastinandi* is very strong and convincing; and though a Man may dispute the full Hit of a File, yet if he is knocked down with a Stick, he will hardly get up again and say, it just brushed him." He had closely followed, moreover, the play of the best-known masters of his time, and celebrates them in a style bearing a certain grotesque resemblance to some passages of the Book of Ecclesiasticus: "A specimen or two must suffice:—

Timothy Buck was a most solid Master, it was apparent in his Performances, even when grown decrepid [sic], and his old Age could not hide his

uncommon Judgement. He was the Pillar of the Art, and all his Followers, who excelled, built upon him. . . .

Fig was the Atlas of the Sword, and may he remain the gladiating Statue! In him, Strength, Resolution, and unparallel'd Judgement conspired to form a matchless Master. There was a Majesty alone in his Countenance, and blazed in all his Actions, beyond all I ever saw.

It is evident from Godfrey's account that the backsword or broadsword play of his time was aimed indifferently at the head, body, and leg. The cut at the leg seems indeed to have been rather favoured. But in the later "backwording" with sticks, as explained in *Tom Brown*, and seen as near London as Windsor by divers other good witnesses who are not yet old men, the head is the sole object of effective attack. It is defended, first by the stick placed in a high hanging guard, and also by the left elbow and forearm, which are held as much before the face as a handkerchief passed round the left thigh and held in the left hand will admit. The elbow may be on a level with the crown of the head when the handkerchief is drawn tight. Victory is with the player who first makes an inch of blood appear anywhere on his adversary's head. Blows on the arm or body do not count, but may be used to gain an opening at the head. The men stand fast pretty close to one another, so that there is no lunging, and of course no scope for movements involving judgment of time and distance. A stout and supple wrist and quickness in the returns appear to have been the main conditions of success. This backword or singletick (thus limited by conventions of whose origin we know nothing) seems a monotonous kind of play compared with fencing or sabre practice. But it must have been no bad training for nerve and eye, and, inasmuch as the first hit that took effect was decisive, must have required close and steady play. Modern amateurs are perhaps too light-hearted in giving and receiving in the course of one assault a dozen or more hits that with real swords would be disabling, if not fatal.

In the German Schläger combat the position is the same as in backwording, save that the left arm is kept, as in sabre play, behind the body; commonly the waistband of the trousers is grasped by the left hand. The weapon is a long, narrow blade, like a pointless rapier, but much more flexible. It is sharpened for a length of twenty centimetres (say eight inches) on the true edge, and five on the false edge. For practice and instruction blunt and rather stouter blades are used. The mask is like an English singletick mask, but stronger and heavier. A padded leather vest, coming almost down to the knees, covers the body, and the right arm is encased in a sleeve attached to a gauntlet, which may be compared to an elongated Rugby football. In the actual duel there is an even more elaborate system of defence; the right wrist is guarded with a ring of mail, and the arm with folds of silk, which, like the turban of the East, are enough to stop any ordinary cut. Practically, though not according to strict rule, the body is altogether covered. The eyes are protected by iron spectacles, with strong wire net instead of glasses. A padded cap, defending the top of the head, is added to all this for students in their first year, who fight only under the direction of their seniors. The more advanced *Burschen* do not wear these caps, and are thus exposed to much more serious blows.

It is known to English readers by many descriptions that the duels are not, as a rule, the outcome of any real quarrel; they are arranged by the leaders of the fighting "Corps" of students, or by the senior members between themselves. At the same time challenges to serious duels with the Schläger are not unknown. Such a duel is called "glacé," because only town gloves (*Glacé-Handscheuhe*) may be worn, and the ordinary equipment is discarded. It involves very serious danger, and is outside the rules of the game, no man being held bound to accept a challenge in this form. There are, however, sundry degrees of severity in recognized duels. First-year men (*Füchse*) fight with caps, for twenty-four rounds (*Gänge*, equivalent to the French phrase in fencing) of seven blows each. The regular form of duel for seniors is a quarter of an hour's fighting without caps. This may be made sharper by dispensing with seconds; for the second in a Schläger duel has not merely judicial or diplomatic functions. He stands close beside his man, holding an unsharpened Schläger with which he may parry as many blows as he thinks fit, and often he does parry a large proportion.

As to the manner of play, the cuts are aimed only at the head, and are delivered, not with the centre of percussion, but with the extreme forward part of the blade, which alone, as we have said, is sharpened. It is worth notice that the Schläger is derived from the long straight sword of the German Reiters, the force of whose blows made them famous in the sixteenth century at the battle of St. Quentin and elsewhere. They gave neither sweeping horizontal cuts like Orientals, nor drawing cuts like most European swordsmen, but struck in the line of their own motion with a continuing forward impetus, and did great execution. With the modern Schläger the blow comes entirely from the wrist, and (as in English backwording) has no movement of the body or limbs to aid it. Nevertheless, it is of great power, and has to be parried with a sharp forward motion of the *fort* of the opposing sword, otherwise it beats in over the guard. The lines of attack and parry are limited by the scope of the object to be attacked. From the position of the engaging guard, which, in the terms of fencing, may be called a very high prime, cuts may be made in the high outside line at the right side of the head (*Terz*), or with a turn of the wrist at the left side of the head (*Quart*), or the same in a lower line under the point (*Tiefquart*). Attacks in the outside line under the blade (corresponding to the fencer's *seconde*) are not allowed. The *Terz* attacks are mostly taken on the padded right

arm. Such are the elements, to which certain variations have to be added. Thus *Hinterkopfsterz* and *Streichquart* are vertical, or nearly vertical, cuts over the guard at the top or even back of the head. When caps are not worn blows of this kind may inflict a rather ugly wound. Really serious ones are hardly known, but it is quite possible for the surgeon in attendance to have a troublesome piece of work. Small arteries, for example, may be divided and have to be taken up.

On the whole, there is not more danger to life or limb in a Schläger duel, for healthy men and with the usual precautions, than in any other rough pastime; probably there is not so much as in the Rugby game of football under the old rules. But the effusion of blood and the necessary presence and use of surgical appliances make it appear a barbarous affair to any one not bred to familiarity with it. And the play is said to be falling off in the skill which was its only justification. Twenty years ago the players hardly ever led off with a direct attack, which was thought too rash, but fainted and watched for their opportunity on a return. Of late years it has become a fashion to discard policy, and try for hits by main force; the weapons are also heavier than they used to be. Some local differences exist, or existed not long ago, in the fashion of the Schläger. The *Glockenschläger*, common in the North-German Universities, has a peculiar mounting, and is grasped like an Italian foil with a finger round the cross-bar. Formerly the small-sword was used as well; it is mentioned by Crabb Robinson in his Diary as being somewhere (at Jena, if our memory serves us) the regular instrument of students' duels. This usage, however, survives, if it still does survive, only at Munich. Possibly some reader may be curious concerning the literature of the Schläger. We believe that of technical literature there is little or none. The rules of the duel are preserved in manuscript books, and may probably be found in print. But the art seems to depend wholly upon oral tradition, which is to be regretted. For, whatever we may think of Schläger duelling, it has been for many generations a singular feature of German University life; and it deserves to have some better record than the casual descriptions of strangers before it goes the way of English backwording.

THE DEFINITION OF THE SNOB.

IT would appear that some preliminary remarks which were made here a few weeks ago on the necessity of a new Critique of Snobs have produced a certain effect. This is not surprising, and the fact may be noted without fatuity and without offence. For forty years mankind in England has been actuated to a great extent by a strong and healthy desire to escape snobbery, and a sudden reminder that mankind has got into a wrong groove is sure to be startling. It is creditable, very creditable, to any one that he should have tried to make his exit from Avernus, and it is not discreditable that the escaper should be somewhat *froissé* at being reminded that the escape is not facile. It will not do simply to reverse the proceedings of the ancestors who are within the grasp of Tartarus; if it would do, there would be no such great difficulty about the matter. Happy, too happy, would the human race be if any such receipt were effectual. Because the snob of the Forties achieved his destiny by loving a lord or a rich man, the snob of the Eighties thinks to escape that destiny by laughing at lords and (in print) condemning riches. Alas! it will not suffice. *Χαλερόν τὸ ἄδελφον ὑπερβαίει*; and the hardness is not made less hard by the simple resolve to avoid certain forms of badness which the bad men among our fathers did not avoid. But the deserving among the snobs possible (that is, among the Englishmen of to-day) may justly call for something like a guiding rule to replace that negative one which has so fatally miscarried. Therefore let us in all modesty attempt, not indeed the definition of the snob (properly to treat so vast a subject would require reams of snobscap paper, and reams of snobscap paper are not at our command), but some remarks as to his definition. The really genuine neophyte must await the illustration in detail which we trust to give him. But something like a preliminary sketch may be attempted. And, following Aristotle and the *Oxford Spectator*, it may be legitimately observed that accuracy is not to be expected. Absolute accuracy, indeed, in this matter must be postponed for some generations at least—until documents are fully registered. In our Original one kind of snob has himself fully delineated; in the present feeble and tentative essays another kind will, with the permission of those gods who may be protectors of snobbery, find himself taken pretty well *enr le vif*, though by an inferior hand. The future forms of snobs will await the future snobographer; and each snobographer will be met by the angry reclamation of his subjects, which subjects will, no doubt, be diverse.

Nunc hic, nunc illic, superant vitalis rerum,
Et superantur item.

When we and our followers have noted with a humble spirit, and, to use the words of a great writer of this day, "in the grave and chaste manner," the snob-phenomena of many generations, then accuracy may be expected, but not before.

To the best of our remembrance, a remembrance founded on many years' constant reading, the great Original did not attempt to define a snob, indeed he once said *literatim*, "We can't define it." The attempt has been, however, made in the form "The

snob is he who admires base things basely." But this will not stand a moment's examination. Like all bad definitions, it extends to the wrong things and does not extend to the right. Here and there a snob would be caught by it; but for every one so caught many snobs would go free. For a man may admire things which are not at all base in a wrong way, and may so be a snob. He may admire base things with a knowledge of their baseness, and so be something even worse than a snob, but not one. He may, in hopes to guard himself against "fate which does so fast pursue," resolve not to admire anything, and so be the uttermost and most hopeless of all snobs. And there can be little doubt that the mistaken notion that snobbery consists in admiration has, more than anything else, been the genesis of the snob of the second degree—the snob who thinks that, if he is sufficiently contemptuous of all hitherto recognized ideals, he is safe. *Ce n'est pas plus raide que ça*. The heaven of safety from snobbery can be attained by the simple process of talking disdainfully of the House of Lords.

Another, and a much safer, though still not quite a perfect, definition, which we have never seen given, is this—that a snob is he who follows the multitude to do evil. And note here that the multitude may be a merely relative multitude. It may be a majority of his own set as well as of his nation or of the world at large. Here we get rid at least of one drawback of the earlier attempt. For we recognize that there may be a snobbery of contempt as well as a snobbery of admiration. One, at least, of the chief notes of the snob, the deference to fashion, is happily set down by this definition, and it is so specially applicable to the present day that it may have special temptations to men of the present day. And yet it will not exactly "wash." For a snob might differ from the multitude for snobbish reasons, and so slip out at one loophole. He might follow the multitude to do good by an exception, and rejoice in his foolish, snobbish heart that he had got rid of the curse. And, lastly, a great many evil deeds which the multitude do, and are followed in doing, are not *per se* snobbish. It is impossible for the most violent partisan to say that it was snobbish of Cromwell to cut off Charles I.'s head. It is true that on that occasion he had the great multitude against him, but he had the small with him, and he followed it, and he did evil. Yet was he in this respect most assuredly not a snob, though he may have been on certain other occasions of his life. Napoleon, on the other hand (the usual historic name suggested by the Protector's), was always a snob *ab initio ad finem*, though he very rarely followed the multitude to do anything, bad or good. In fact (though this is not presently to the purpose) a comparison between Cromwell and Napoleon might be as fruitful as anything else in experiments and discoveries on the nature of the snob. We abstain (also for the present) with still greater reluctance from some comparisons of modern English politicians, which would be almost as luminous, but might give rise to more controversy.

It might be possible by an ingenious use of the old "Rule of False" to extract from the comparison of these and of other definitions something more satisfactory. But the safer and wiser way in this infancy of the science of snobography is to refrain from the attempt at absolute aphorism. Snob-detection must for a long time, if not always, be a branch rather of aesthetics than of mathematics; the snob must be felt rather than demonstrated. But certain marks of him may at least be pointed out and may help the explorer far more advantageously than an imperfect definition in his quest after the beast. One such mark has been already indicated. The snob almost always attempts to be in the fashion. In an aristocratic era he is a blind devotee of rank; in an age of wealth-getting and devil-take-the-hindmost, of riches; in a democratic age, of numbers and popularity. And it is a further and an almost crucial test of him that his admiration is never a really genuine admiration. When he grovelled before lords it was not because he knew the history of the peerage, its great deeds for England, its connexion with the noblest social conceptions ever reached by the human race—the conceptions of chivalry, and of a graduated society, in which each higher rank fought for and protected the lower. It had nothing to do with the past—the snob never thinks if he knows it of the past, except to derive petty grudges from the thought. He admired it because it was glittering and apparently powerful in the present. Now that he contemns the peerage (while for the most part chattering about peers in preference to anything else) it is not because he has any reasoned idea of equality (which indeed is a contradiction in terms), but partly because he has an ignoble jealousy of a privilege which he does not possess, and partly because it is the cant of the day to sneer at peerages. When he bowed the knee, and when he still bows the knee, before wealth, it was, and is, not because of the immense potentialities of wealth, for good or for evil; not even in most cases because he had or has a genuine thirst for the baser pleasures that wealth can give. Wealth makes a man conspicuous and talked about—the snob's heaven in itself. In short, the snob's is less a peculiar idiosyncrasy than a mixture of many bad idiosyncrasies in a mean and moderate degree. When he transcends this degree he ceases, at any rate in that particular instance, to be a snob, though he may still be one in other matters. Probably it requires the restraining influence of a complex civilization to breed snobs, and that may be the reason why, beyond the Renaissance at earliest, it is nearly impossible to trace them. You must have a set convention of some kind before you can have a snob; and, when the convention is set, the snob congenially manifests himself in attempts to

burlesque, degrade, and exaggerate it. Then there comes a reaction, and he either does the same with a new convention, or, as we have seen in these days, having no new one ready made, hastens with equally congenial clumsiness to burlesque, degrade, and exaggerate the revolt against the old convention. And throughout his various and changing forms the one characteristic which remains to him is unreality. He can never give a reason for the faith, or the unfaith, that is in him. Mrs. Grundy or the Caucus, "the county" or the moral standard of the Particular Baptist Synod of Llanpumpsaunt, hold the place to him of his proper judgment and taste. A man who really on intelligible principles admires a bright blue wall-paper, with gold stars thickly powdered on it at mathematical intervals, is not a snob by any means; neither is a man (if such there be) a snob who on intelligible, or even unintelligible, principles thinks Mr. Jesse Collings a statesman. Again, all snobs are necessarily objects of dislike tempered by a little pity and some amusement; but an object of dislike is not necessarily a snob. So also every snob is a fool; but every fool is not a snob. For the chief characteristic of the snob, difficult to seize as it is in its essence, is not primarily political, or artistic, or literary, or religious; it is moral. And, if we look among the old-fashioned moral virtues for the nearest antipathy of snobbishness, we shall find it in Magnanimity—that is to say, Pride in the good sense. A really proud man may have many vices and weaknesses, but he can never be one of two bad things, a democrat or a snob—which two bad things, be it remembered, are two, and not necessarily though often enough by accident, one. He thinks too much of himself to conceive it possible that he can be lowered by paying to any one else the respect which is by the courtesy of convention that one's due, and in the same way he is saved from the danger of exaggerating that respect. He covets and envies no rank, and therefore he neither adulates nor carps at any. He forms and holds his own opinions, and is therefore in no danger of borrowing them from the multitude. He would laugh at the idea of the most sweet voices conferring any dignity on him or depriving him of any, of their having any right to command his obedience or intelligence to command his respect. And he would equally laugh at the notion of its being worth while to set the most sweet voices at defiance by any violent eccentricity or recalcitrance. Such is the anti-snob temper, from which, by reading backward, the snob temper may be most easily described, if not defined. But there are other touches which must be put to the description, and these cannot yet be applied. Indeed, as was said at the outset, we want more information; we want a Royal Commission on snobs, renewed every generation, before their nature can be scientifically pronounced upon. In the papers which may possibly follow this we shall only attempt to display our art on the snobs *quos nacti sumus*.

THE RESTORATION OF THE BISHOPRIC OF BRISTOL.

FUTURE Church reformers may well learn caution from the way in which, bit by bit, the steadfast unintelligent ecclesiastical legislation of the Church Commission of the beginning of this reign is being annulled. The work is not yet half a century old, but it has not worn well, and it is constantly calling for alteration. To legislate under a panic is proverbially unwise. What is enacted is not what is best and wisest, but what will still the clamour outside and stave off the threatened danger. It is not surprising that such measures should want the principle of permanence, and, being destitute of any wide view of the subject, or any firm grasp of its real bearings, their inadequacy should become growingly apparent until a radical change is once more imperative. When the Bishops were warned by Earl Grey in ominous tones to "set their houses in order," if they were not to be swept away in the rising torrent of reform, one might have thought that they would feel that the most important thing to be done was to make episcopacy a more real power in the country. To prove its practical value was the surest way to save it from destruction. But to do this, to transform bishops from stately functionaries, making formal progresses through their dioceses at stated intervals for the mechanical performance of confirmations and other episcopal functions, into real overseers of their dioceses, manifesting a fatherly interest in their spiritual well-being, and coming into living relations with their pastors and their flocks, was an idea which had hardly yet dawned on the episcopal mind. Bishop Wilberforce had not yet created the modern type of an English bishop. Besides, if the idea had been conceived, to carry it into execution would have demanded a large increase of the number of the bishops. And such an increase was regarded as impossible. Twenty-six was the number of English diocesan prelates, and twenty-six it must remain. The limits fixed by Pope Gregory twelve centuries before for the English episcopate were those

Quos ultra citraque nequit consistere rectum.

They were laid down in a prophetic spirit for all time. There was a seeming sacredness about the number two dozen and two—two metropolitans and four-and-twenty suffragans—like that attaching to the mysterious "tetractys" of the Pythagoreans, or the sacred number of the Incas, which might not be violated with impunity. The Sacred College had been a long time in attaining its full complement. Nine centuries and a half had elapsed before the pious care of Henry VIII. for the restoration of "true religion

and the worship of God" in the hallowed seats which had been polluted by "the enormities into which the life and profession of the monks had long since lamentably deviated"—"deplorabiliter exorbitaverat" (we quote from the Royal letter decreeing the privation of the see of Bristol and the other sees erected at the same time; Rymer, *Fœdera*, xiv. 749)—completed the tale. But, that once reached, advance was impossible. "Roma locuta est, causa finita est." True, our legislators were Protestants, and had been called again and again to renounce certain "damnable doctrines and positions" of the Church of Rome. But this numerical terminus, though fixed by a Pope, had an awful sanctity about it, which it would be profane to tamper with. "Actum esset de ecclesia"; it would be all up with the Church if its episcopate were enlarged by a single member.

And so, when the claims for increased episcopate supervision for the teeming thousands of the manufacturing populations of Lancashire and West Yorkshire could no longer be ignored, and it was decided that the dioceses of Manchester and Ripon should be constituted, the sacred number was to be preserved intact by the abolition of two of the existing sees—we ought rather to say by their absorption into other sees—thus putting an end to their independent existence, and converting them into "nominiis umbra." The two dioceses selected for this "happy despatch"—the "painless extinction"—were, as we well know, those of St. Asaph and Bangor, and of Gloucester and Bristol. On the next avoidance of one of these pairs of bishoprics the surviving bishop was, "nolens volens," to take over the widowed diocese, and become bishop of the two. The process proposed was the reverse of Cowper's

Two Kings of Brentford seated on one throne,

for there were to be two thrones, and only one bishop to sit in them. We need not remind our readers how through the providential tenacity of life in the North Welsh prelates and the heroic resolution of the late Lord Powys—in bringing forward the repeal of this union again and again—never knowing that he was beaten till he had achieved success, one part of this monstrous measure never took effect. Bishop Bethell and Bishop Fowler Short obstinately refused to die. Lord Powys refused to throw up the sponge, and the two Welsh bishoprics were saved to the Church.

From the first the see of Bristol seems to have caused the Commissioners the greatest perplexity. Its existence as an independent see was no longer to be allowed. It was to be united with something. That was a settled question. But with what? That was the "crux." It is not generally known that the proposition in the Commissioners' first Report was that the sees of Llandaff and Bristol should be united. It was nothing to them that the Bristol Channel interposed its "stormy water" between the two—

Nequicquam Deus abscedit
Prudens oceano dissociabili
Terras—

if the "impious" Commissioners decreed that the Bishop, whether good sailor or bad, should bound over the shallows he had rather not touch. Indeed the Commissioners, safe from having to suffer themselves from the consequences of their legislation, seem to have been perfectly enamoured of separating a bishop and his cathedral from the chief portion of his diocese by a stretch of salt water. Thus they assigned to the Bishop of Rochester the counties of Hertfordshire and Essex, with his cathedral on one side of the estuary of the Thames, and his chief charge on the other, while, crueller still, they proposed to unite Sodor and Man with Carlisle, thus entailing on the unlucky occupant of the joint see six hours of tossing on one of the roughest pieces of water to be found anywhere round our coasts, every time he had any episcopal functions to perform on the Isle of Man.

The reason alleged by the Commissioners for the union of Llandaff and Bristol is not unimportant in its bearing on the scheme now so energetically promoted for reconstituting the ancient see, which we rejoice to be assured has the full sanction of the Prime Minister of Her Majesty's Government, as well as the hearty approval of the present Bishop, and is therefore not unlikely to take effect within a measurable period. The Commissioners say (Third Report, 1836) "when we recommended the Union of the Sees of Llandaff and Bristol, we were influenced chiefly by a Desire to retain for the City of Bristol its Ecclesiastical Character; and to secure to it the Advantage of a Bishop resident upon the Spot, or at no great distance from it." The Commissioners, however, forgot entirely to take into account the feelings of the diocese of Llandaff. They were as unwilling as Bristol could be to exchange "the Benefits which they derived from the Residence and personal Superintendence of their Bishop" for the casual favours of a Bishop whose home would be on the other side of the Severn sea. The remonstrances from Monmouthshire and Glamorganshire were so loud and urgent that this pet scheme of the Commissioners had to be given up altogether, and some fresh arrangement suggested. The Commissioners' second scheme was equally unlucky. In fact, they seem throughout to have succeeded in disgusting as many people as possible, and causing the greatest offence to the greatest number. This second proposition was (we give it in their own words) "that the City and Suburbs of Bristol, being within a convenient Distance of the City of Wells, where the Bishop of Bath and Wells resides, should be united to that Diocese."

If the former recommendation was unpopular on one side of the Bristol Channel, this was still more obnoxious on the other.

Bristol was lashed to a fury. We hear of no voice being raised in that city against the union with Llandaff, and reasonably enough. In that case they were to be the absorbers; in this they were to be the absorbed. Bristol and Bath have always maintained a kind of friendly rivalry, a sort of amicable jealousy of one another. But the suggestion that Bristol should lose its independent dignity and be merged in a see, in the designation of which its rival's name took the prominent place, was intolerable. The Bristolians "represented in strong Terms their Objections to a Plan which would merge their Episcopal See in that of Bath and Wells, and their earnest Desire to retain the Advantages of the pastoral Superintendence and Example of a Bishop resident amongst them."

Once more the Commissioners were forced to yield, pronouncing the "Feelings" manifested to be "not less honourable to the Citizens of Bristol than encouraging to the Friends of the Established Church." So they tried a third scheme, already adverted to in their First Report, and this time with better success—"Numero Deus impare gaudet." The Churchmen of Bristol had a sop thrown to them in the promise that they should retain their Bishop—at least half of him—and the whole of their Cathedral. A house was to be provided in some convenient situation near the City of Bristol so that the Bishop might reside alternately there and at Gloucester. To make up for the addition to the see of Salisbury of Dorsetshire, the two northern deaneries of Wiltshire were to be transferred to the newly-constituted diocese of Gloucester and Bristol, the whole scheme to take effect at the first avoidance of either see. The accomplishment of this ill-arranged plan was not long deferred. The fates were as favourable to the one union as they happily have proved unfavourable to the other.

The South-Western sees were less fortunate. In 1834 Bristol was vacated by the death of Bishop Gray, the father of the dauntless Metropolitan of the South African Church, who, with the same indelible courage which characterized his son, when warned during the terrible Bristol riots of 1831 of the danger of going to his Cathedral on Sunday morning, since the mob had threatened to destroy it and him, calmly remarked—"Well, if they kill me, where could a bishop better die than in his Cathedral in the worship of God?" Divine Service over, he saw unmoved his palace fired by the rioters and reduced to a blackened ruin. Bishop Gray's successor was the Rev. Joseph Allen, Lord Althorp's college tutor, with the promise that whenever Ely should become vacant he should be translated to that far more comfortable and well-endowed see. Bishop Allen's hope was not long deferred. Within two years Bishop Sparke died, and the see of Bristol became once more vacant. There had been no chivalrous champion to do battle for its independence, as for that of its Welsh sisters. Less fortunate the see of Sodor and Man, which had been saved from being merged in Carlisle by the memory of the sainted Bishop Wilson. Even the venerated name of Bishop Butler was powerless to preserve it from absorption. The Act was imperative. The easygoing, scholarly Monk—the last of the "Greek-play bishops"—was not one to raise any objections to its provisions being carried out. Besides, the transfer was made as agreeable as possible. The Palace at Gloucester—since rebuilt by Bishop Baring—was an inconvenient, dilapidated building. The mob, as we have said, had burnt down the palace at Bristol; the Bishop of the united sees, as we have said, was to have two houses, and reside alternately at each of his Cathedral cities, and, to enable him to meet the increased expense, an addition of 500*l.* was made to his income. So a grand new house was built, at enormous cost, at Stapleton, in a pleasant suburb of Bristol, in which—"proviso" notwithstanding—the house at Gloucester being declared uninhabitable, Bishop Monk passed all the rest of his episcopal life, except such portion as was spent in his residuary house in the Cloisters of the Abbey, as Canon of Westminster. The successors of Bishop Monk—Bishops Baring, Thomson, and Ellicott—the palace there being rebuilt, have preferred Gloucester as a residence. The magnificent house at Stapleton, so lately built, has been sold, and has been converted into a charitable institution. Beyond occasional visits, often in the case of the present Bishop extending over a considerable period, the great City of Bristol with its vast and rapidly growing population has seen but little of its Bishop. It is needless to say how greatly the work of the Church has suffered in Bristol from the absence of a responsible head. The injury inflicted on the Church in Bristol by robbing her of a resident Bishop has been made increasingly manifest by the growth of the population. It has been growingly felt that a great wrong had been done to one of the chief cities in the kingdom, and that this wrong ought to be redressed. Bristol claims to have a bishop for itself, and it proves the validity of that claim and the earnestness with which it is put forward by the manner in which it takes the matter into its own hand, and asking nothing from the Legislature but permission to undo the rash work of half a century back, displays its determination to secure the restoration of its bishopric by raising the sum needed for its endowment. The income proposed for the future bishop, 2,500*l.* a year, including 500*l.* resigned by Bishop Ellicott, is not a large one—hardly large enough indeed to meet the perpetual demands that are made on a bishop's purse. But the diocese will not be a large one, and we may hope the pecuniary tax will be in proportion. The new see is proposed to include no more than Bristol itself and its Deanery, and the two Northern Deaneries of Wiltshire, which since the changes in the boundaries of the

diocese have belonged to the see of Gloucester. No rash attempt will be made to do away with any more ancient landmarks, by robbing the Somersetshire see of any portion of its historic territory; least of all—which we have been gravely told was a recognized portion of the plan—of the City of Bath, which was at one time the seat of that bishopric, and has for many centuries given it its distinguishing name. The population of the proposed diocese will be about 400,000, which will exceed that of the neighbouring diocese of Salisbury, and will be little inferior to that of Lincoln, when—as by the time this is in the hands of our readers we trust it will be—it is relieved of the county of Nottingham by the foundation of the see of Southwell.

The hearty unanimity displayed at the recent meeting at Bristol, the character of the speeches made, and the liberality shown by the subscription list, prove that the citizens of Bristol are thoroughly in earnest in their resolve to have their bishop restored to them. And when such men are in earnest there is no withstanding them. It only remains for us to express our hearty sympathy with the movement, and an earnest hope that the manifest injustice of in any way hindering the Church from making provision for her own needs by her sons' munificence will forbid any substantial opposition being made to the Bill when it is introduced into Parliament, so that the "Bill" may speedily become an "Act." That point gained, we have no question that the pecuniary requirements will be soon met, and that it will not be very long before we have to congratulate the reconstituted diocese on the consecration of its first—or may we more truly say its forty-eighth?—bishop. Happy will the diocese be if it secures one to inaugurate its renewed independent existence who will exhibit the calm wisdom, the quiet perseverance, the moderation, the devotion to duty, and the Christian love which have characterized the venerable prelate whose resignation, however necessary, we cannot but deplore, whose episcopal virtues have rendered the diocese of Chester one of the most enviable dioceses in England.

ENGLAND IN AMERICA.

A FEW weeks ago the City of New York celebrated the centenary of its evacuation by the British troops after the close of the revolutionary war. There was a procession of the practical sort which finds favour in the eyes of Americans; there were regiments of the State National Guard, and crack corps invited from other States; there were detachments of the veterans of the war of the Rebellion, bearing the torn and tattered battle-flags, almost shot from their standards in four years' hard fighting; there were carriages containing the few survivors of the war of 1812 with Great Britain; there were other carriages containing the President of the United States, the Governors of New York and of a few other States, and the mayor and other officials of the City of New York; there were detachments of police and firemen; and there were a few hundred men from the tiny regular army which the Government of the United States deems adequate for its needs. In the evening there was a banquet, and there were speeches. Perhaps the most noteworthy circumstance of the whole affair was the friendly tone toward England. Nowhere in the speeches, in the newspapers, or in the talk of the crowd, was there any evidence of the slightest hostile feeling—always excepting, of course, the utterances of the wholly un-American and unrepresentative section of the public which thinks of Ireland first and of the United States last. There were many positive signs of a friendly feeling. With doubtful taste one wandering Briton hung a British flag from a window of the hotel in which he was staying, and although the procession passed under it there was no protestation of any kind. It is not too much to say that there is now no trace at all of the ill-will toward England which naturally lingered after the revolution, and which was fanned to a flame before the war of 1812. This ill-will was perceptible easily enough down to the outbreak in 1861, although it was slowly fading away. During the Civil War there was not a little anger against Great Britain among both parties; but the Civil War, overshadowing all other questions, wholly killed the early ill-will, and the anger died out soon for lack of fuel. It is perhaps scarcely accurate to describe the present feeling as cordial, and the sentimental declarations after dinner that the two countries are brothers, and that "blood is thicker than water," are perhaps not quite sincere on either side. The attitude of the really representative American is that taken by Mr. Lowell in his delightful speech at the dinner given to Mr. Henry Irving on the Fourth of July last year. This attitude may perhaps be described as a dignified and sincere friendliness, as far removed from hysterical sentimentality on one side as it is from enmity on the other. So distinctly is this the position of the best Americans, that the well-informed American critic is always inclined to ascribe the authorship of a violent invective against England in an American journal to some renegade Englishman; and the ascription is rarely inaccurate.

There is to be seen just now in America, in what is known as Society, a strong tendency to imitate English ways and customs and fashions. This tendency is gaining strength, and spreading from New York and Boston to smaller inland cities. It is a new thing in many ways, for until lately New York has taken its cue rather from Paris than from London. During the Second Empire many good Americans made pilgrimages to the Tuileries as to a Mecca, and some settled permanently near the shrine. But Paris

is no longer more fashionable than London. The American girl continues to get her gowns in the French capital, of course; but she is glad to get her habit and her ulster and her cloaks in the English capital. As there is now no Court in France, she looks forward to a presentation at Court in England; and the possibility of marrying a title is perhaps present to her mind as she crosses the ocean. That she is quite capable of taking care of herself in the presence of English noblemen and of their female relatives all readers of Mr. James's *International Episode* and of Mr. Howells's *Woman's Reason* will bear witness. In fact, the American girl is in no danger of losing her head before parting with her hand. It is her consort, the American young man, who is most likely to be contaminated by contact with the Englishman. There is no denying that a certain set of young Americans, more particularly in New York and in Boston, affect the Englishman and ape all his affectations. They mimic every English trick in the most snobbish way. They attempt an English accent, and they sprinkle Briticisms freely through their speech. They talk of their "fads," and they call people "cads," and they abound in the most amusing little affectations. Their greatest happiness is to be taken for an Englishman—a joy not often vouchsafed to them. It was to one of these pitiful imitations—a young Bostonian—that a clever New York girl said, "Mr. Blank, I should think you would be so glad to meet Lord So-and-so; you know he is a real Englishman!"

This Anglo-mania has resulted in the introduction into certain American cities of not a few British customs. Rich men drive heavy carriages imported from England, ignoring, or ignorant of, the fact that the use of the native American woods, tough and springy, allow American carriages to be much lighter while quite as strong. Rich young men play polo in the broiling heat of an American summer. Attempts are made at fox-hunting. Unfortunately the foxes are few, so that a drag has frequently to be employed. So marked a feature of New York society has the forced imitation of English customs become, that a light and lively little weekly called *Life*, now about a year old, has best made itself known by constant attacks on this. And the chief cartoon of another American comic weekly, published on Evacuation Day, was a picture of all the importations from England, both men and things, now to be seen in the streets of New York, with a sarcastic query as to the exact date of the English evacuation. The variety of Anglomania which most excited the joy of the comic journalist was the Dude. There are those who pretend to see a resemblance between the Dude and the Masher. But these are not profound observers. The Masher, we venture to think, although chronically tired, is, on occasion, boisterous. The Dude is never noisy; he is a living protest against indecorum; he is the embodiment of the desire to be a perfect gentleman of the strictest English order. In his dress there was to be seen a certain likeness to the Masher. But here, again, the likeness was superficial. The Masher was dressed in the height of fashion always. The Dude, although clothed in imitation of an Englishman, sought always to be as unobtrusive as possible in his attire. Yet his quiet, stiff, British manners often attracted malicious criticism. There is even a story current of a worthy farmer who saw two Dudes in town, and who remarked, with great grief, "Gosh! what things a man does see when he ain't got his gun!"

Mr. Matthew Arnold, who is enlightening the Americans by personal ministrations and a set of three lectures, finds Barbarians, Philistines, and Populace in England, and declared his expectation of finding in America only Philistines. But he reckoned without the American Anglomania. The American Anglomania, as we have seen, is a Philistine who apes the Barbarian. The genuine British Barbarian Mr. Arnold credits with various good qualities, and he has at least the consciousness of a solid position. The American pseudo-Barbarian has all the faults, and none of the virtues, of the English model, and he cannot but be conscious that his position is false and hollow. He is but a brummagem Barbarian—and a brummagem Barbarian is a sorry sight for gods and men. It is fortunate for the future of the United States that this class of Anglomaniacs, although beginning to be large enough to be counted, is only an infinitesimal section of the American people. Nothing is plainer to the wayfaring man, though a fool, if he will but keep his eyes open and note the signs of the times, than the growing divergence and independence of the United States from England in literature and in life. The English and the Americans are of one stock, but they are two peoples; and there is nothing to be gained by a pretence that the Americans are colonial or provincial. The colonial spirit has been invisible in the United States for fifty years, and the provincial spirit died during the war of the Rebellion. The conditions of life in the United States, the climate, the blending of customs brought from other lands than England, these unite in making the American unlike the Englishman. What the American is like can best be seen in Mr. Howells's novels, or in the striking anonymous story of the *Breadwinners*. Mr. James has dealt admirably with the Europeanized American; but he is himself too Europeanized to be altogether satisfactory as a portrayal of the uncontaminated American; in fact, we doubt if Mr. James knows New York, or even Boston, as well as he knows Paris and London. As Colonel Higginson neatly put it, "Mr. James is not a true cosmopolitan, because a true cosmopolitan is at home even in his own country." Mr. James is so far abroad in his own country that he cited in a story in the *Century*, not long ago, as a typical Americanism, "in the swim," a phrase which not one American in ten would be likely to understand.

Sport is one of the things in which American habits are widely different from English. Polo and foxhunting—or the pursuit of drag under difficulties—are recent importations, and as such they are the amusement only of the fast and fashionable few, and have no interest whatever for any others. Cricket, in spite of many strenuous efforts, has never been acclimated in the United States; there are a few clubs here and there, mostly managed by Englishmen; but the popular interest is wholly in baseball, and a crack game of baseball easily attracts a gathering of twenty thousand. Racing is rapidly becoming more popular and profitable, but the real liking of the people is for trotting. The owning of fast trotters, for his own private use and behoof, is one of the joys of the American millionaire; and the one crumpled rose-leaf in Mr. Vanderbilt's existence is, that a much poorer man has a faster pair of trotters than he has, and that the much poorer man, with a painful disregard of his duty toward a man worth twenty million pounds, refuses to sell his team. Here occasion serves to say that wealth merely as wealth has less weight in the United States than it has in Great Britain. We know that there is a common belief that wealth is more worshipped and is more powerful in New York than it is in London; but the belief is unfounded. Whether it is that wealth is too common in America, or that most Americans expect to be wealthy some day, or that they can remember when the rich man was a poor man, or whatever the reason may be, the fact remains that the possession of money counts for far less in New York than it does in London. And if we may credit Mr. Archibald Forbes, the same state of affairs obtains in Australia as in America.

Where English influence in America might be supposed to be strongest is in literature. There is no denying that it is strong. But the influence of other countries, and especially of France, is also strong. There are many more translations from the French and the German published annually in the United States than there are in Great Britain. French authors little known in England are widely read in America; and of authors of importance more works have been translated. In New York it is possible, for example, to get a uniform edition in English of all of M. Taine's writings, and of nearly all of Turgenieff's. The American Philistine differs from the British Philistine chiefly in that his ignorance is never hostile; he knows not the light, but he is ready to receive it when he sees it. And this willingness to learn is responsible for the many American translations from foreign authors. And this again redeems what there may be of American provinciality, which is broadened by its allegiance, not to one capital, but to many. Accompanying this study of the best foreign work is a growing indifference to foreign opinion. The American is glad when the value of an American work is recognized by an English or a French critic, but he never waits for the foreign approval before declaring his own opinion. Indeed he is wont to wonder at the English liking for certain American authors, and he is wont also to take up certain English authors and to hail them as masters before their position in England is quite as secure. We believe, for example, that Mr. Austin Dobson and Mr. Robert Louis Stevenson have a wider following in America than they have in England, much liked as they are here. The unfortunate condition of copyright law has driven the better class of American publishers to give up English novels and English books of general literature, and more and more to confine themselves to American books, with a consequent increase in the quantity and quality of the latter. The invasion of England by the American magazines is sufficient proof of their independence, and their success in England is due, we incline to think, to the resolute American tone, and not to any misguided attempt to cater to English taste. At the present day the circulation in England of either *Harper's* or the *Century* is several times as large as the circulation of any English magazine in America.

PRINCE BISMARCK'S SOCIAL EXPERIMENT.

As a rule, the internal policy of a nation can possess but little interest for foreigners. The social reformer may make a study of the way in which other countries provide compensation for the workmen who are injured by accidents in mines or cotton mills, but if he talks too freely upon such subjects his acquaintance will vote him a bore. Yet no one who is acquainted with German politics can have failed to read with interest the draft of a Bill on this subject which was published last week. It is one of the great social reforms that were promised in November 1881; it has been given to the public at an unusually early stage, as if to invite discussion; and the *North German Gazette* has hastened to inform its readers that, though the details of the measure were of course worked out in the Ministerial offices, the principles on which it is founded are entirely the conception of Prince Bismarck. Nor is the scope of the draft unworthy of its origin. It aims at nothing less than the organization of the whole industry of Germany; only for a special purpose at present, it is true, but in a way which, if it can be worked out successfully, will certainly lead to far more important consequences.

Since 1871, when the masters were first legally compelled to make compensation to the workmen for injury incurred by accidents, they have for the most part insured against this risk, and some of the Companies are said not to have acted in a liberal spirit. The sufferers complain that they cannot obtain their just

due without vexatious delay and litigation. It is the object of the present Bill to remedy this and other evils by rendering all the manufacturers and mine-owners of Germany liable for any accident that occurs in their own line of business. For this purpose it is necessary to form them into professional Associations, which is to be done in the following way. Every person who comes under the Act is bound to make a statement to the local authorities as to the line of business in which he is engaged and the average number of hands he employs; and this material, after being duly digested, is to be submitted to the Imperial Insurance Board, a new administrative body, to be formed in a manner that will shortly be explained. After these preliminary steps have been taken, if a sufficient percentage of the masters who are interested in any single branch of industry apply to the Bundesrath for permission to form an Association, this will be granted, unless it be found on examination that the number of persons concerned is too small to render such a step desirable. A general meeting will then be called, at which a member of the Board must be present. Each master will be accredited with a number of votes proportionate to that of the men whom he employs, and may be represented by proxy. The meeting will elect the acting committee, whose members are to receive no remuneration for their services, though their actual expenditure will be reimbursed. An Association thus formed will enjoy corporate rights and great freedom of action. Indeed, almost the entire management of its affairs will be left in its hands, subject to the control of the Imperial Insurance Board; and, as it will be empowered to issue regulations for the prevention of accidents, its influence will be considerable.

The workmen are to be organized in a somewhat similar way. As it would be obviously impossible to call a meeting of all the miners, spinners, or foundry workmen of Germany, the Government has been obliged to look round for some other plan by which the operatives may be represented; and it has discovered one which will probably give expression to their wishes more fairly and more fully than a direct election would have done. The workmen choose the companions in whom they have the greatest confidence to manage their *Krankenkassen*, which do part of the work of our Benefit Societies, though in a different way, and to these the choice of the delegates will be entrusted. No Association will be complete without a labourers' committee, which must consist of from nine to eighteen members.

The new Imperial Insurance Board is to consist of a president, and at least two other members, nominated for life by the Emperor; of four members of the Imperial Council (*Bundesrath*), appointed by that body for a term of four years; and of four representatives of the Associations, two of whom will be elected by the masters and two by the men, for the same period. The Board can come to no decision unless at least five members are present; and when any matter of great, especially pecuniary, importance, or a question relating to the prevention of accidents, is discussed, one of these must be a representative of the masters and one of the men.

If the Bill becomes law, it is probable that those who are interested in the more important industries of the country will hasten to avail themselves of it; if they do not, the central Board is invested with powers to compel them to perform the duties it imposes, even if they do not choose to avail themselves of the advantages it offers. On these we need not dwell, nor on the details of the measure, which can have little interest for any except those immediately affected by it. It may be worth while, however, to add a word or two on the functions of the workmen's Committee. When an accident has happened, they will be bound to send a delegate to assist the police in investigating into its cause, and to nominate two of the court of five who assess the compensation due to any one who has been injured; two others will represent the masters, and the president will be appointed by the Government of the State under the jurisdiction of which the case falls. From this court an appeal may in important cases be made to the central Board, on which, too, as we have seen, the labourers are to be fairly represented.

It is clear at a glance that this scheme differs in several important respects from the two which the Government has already presented to the Imperial Parliament. It is simpler and more precise, while at the same time it is far bolder. For once the Chancellor has deigned to profit by the criticism of his opponents. The workmen are no longer to be forced to contribute to the insurance fund, nor is any burden laid upon the Treasury of the Empire but that of bearing the expenses of the Imperial Board, except in the exceedingly improbable case of an association becoming absolutely insolvent. These are concessions to the Liberal party which it was wise to make, and which are wise in themselves. The whole character of the associations, too, is conceived in a more statesmanlike spirit, and defined with a firmer hand than in the last draft. We may have our doubts as to whether they can be made to work; but if they do they will form a firm basis for many of the social reforms which Prince Bismarck is known to contemplate.

It is difficult to come to any decided opinion as to what the fate of this measure will be when it is presented to the House. To judge from the opinions expressed in the press, the dogmatic Liberals will oppose it on the ground that it is compulsory and that it interferes with the business of the Insurance Companies. But the elections are approaching, and there is some reason to believe that its rejection would be unpopular in the constituencies. At any rate, both the right and the left wing of the party seem to be wavering. The Conservatives of all shades will support it almost to a man, and the Centre has welcomed it

with enthusiasm. It would be wrong to attribute this to the concessions that have been lately made to the Roman Catholic Church. No body of Christian men can view the misery of their fellow-creatures with indifference, and the Roman Catholics have long been honourably known in Germany for the efforts they have made to remove the physical and moral evils which poverty produces. From its very formation, the Centre has been consistent on this point. It bore the reproach of showing a sympathy with the demands of the Socialists long before State Socialism had been received by the Government and presented at Court. Besides this, in granting the trade associations corporate rights and so large an amount of freedom, the Chancellor has adopted principles which several of the leading Catholics have long advocated. The Liberals still command a majority in the Imperial Parliament, but a small defection from their ranks would give this Bill the force of law; and a foreigner with no personal interest at stake can hardly help hoping that he may have an opportunity of observing the results of Prince Bismarck's great experiment.

OVERHEAD WIRES

FOR some long time past the question of wires used by the Government Postal Department and Telephone Companies passing over the houses and streets in London has agitated the public mind. The serious inconveniences and dangers arising from the present almost indiscriminate way in which these wires are run forms, no doubt, a very legitimate source of public grievance. After a great deal of grumbling in the public press lately, certain deputations have waited upon Sir Charles Dilke to lay before him the inconveniences to which the householders are subjected and the dangers which the public generally run from these overhead wires; and certain District Boards of Works are actually opposing the erection of overhead wires in their districts by the Postmaster-General. Throughout the time during which this subject has been discussed in the public press the majority of would-be reformers have suggested but one remedy, and that is to put all telegraph, telephone, and electric-lighting wires underground. There is a certain charm to the non-technical mind about the obvious simplicity of this remedy, and as yet technical men do not seem to have thought it worth their while to point out in the non-technical press the enormous difficulties in the way of adopting it.

A very large number of the overhead wires which are at present causing so much uneasiness and discord are connected with the different telephone systems. Now there are two electrical phenomena, both included under the general name of induction, which tend to interfere with the good working of telephone lines. The best known of these phenomena, and the one most popularly known under the name of "induction," is the production of momentary currents in telephone lines produced by the intermittence or variation of electrical currents in other lines near to them, which produces that peculiar sound so often to be heard in telephones. This may best be described by likening it to the boiling of a kettle, and is often so powerful even under the overhead system as almost to drown the sound of speech. The strength of this effect increases very greatly the closer the telephone wire is to the wires which are causing this disturbance. Now underground wires, as London is not yet provided with subways, must be necessarily very much closer together than they are under the present overhead system, so that this particular effect would become so strong in the case of long lines laid close together underground that it might even interfere with the good working of the more delicate telegraph instruments.

The other effect also included under the general title of induction is scarcely felt on overhead lines. It is that effect which produces what is known as retardation on submarine cables, to overcome which the delicate and expensive instruments now used for submarine telegraphy were devised. This effect would certainly be strong on any long underground telephone line. The effect is not only one of true retardation, it really tends to act as a sort of governor or equalizer, so that a current rapidly changing in strength passed through a line subjected to this influence becomes more steady. Now as telephones depend upon abrupt and rapid changes of the strength of the current, this particular form of inductive effect would seriously impair the clearness of their articulation if the line were of any considerable length. There is no known means at present of overcoming the disturbance of telephonic working introduced by this form of induction. The first form of induction mentioned may be overcome, but the only practical method hitherto introduced consists in running a double wire and thereby enormously increasing the expense. This leads us directly to the other great objection to putting telegraph and telephone lines underground—namely, the greatly increased expense of the whole system. Whereas overhead wires can be run bare, merely requiring very inexpensive insulators on the posts, underground wires have to be carefully covered with an insulating coating, and the added expense of this coating is very considerable. In the arbitration between the Wandsworth District Board of Works and the Postmaster-General, before Mr. Paget as arbitrator, Mr. Henry Eaton, the superintending engineer of the Metropolitan Postal Telegraphs, gave evidence as to one of the disputed lines, that an overhead wire would cost 8*l.* per mile, whilst an underground wire would cost about 350*l.* per mile. Nor does the expense end with

the first cost of the line. No insulating covering has yet been devised suitable for telegraph and telephone wires which will remain in good order for any length of time; in fact, we may safely say that all underground lines have been laid with wire covered with gutta-percha. Unless gutta-percha be kept always covered with water, as in the case of submarine cables, it is subject to more or less rapid decay. This decay gives rise to "faults" on the line which impair or even stop its working, and even with the admirable system of tubes and test-boxes adopted in London by the Post Office authorities for their underground lines, it becomes a matter of time and difficulty to localize these faults and cut them out, thus greatly increasing the cost of maintenance. Every one who knows London well must already be familiar with the testing tents of the Postal Department and the spectacle of their lines-men testing for faults. From all these considerations we say that, even though it may be possible, though not convenient, to lay short telegraph and telephone lines underground, it must involve very considerable outlay to do so.

For the present we may leave out of the question electric lighting leads, which, on the whole, are rather better underground than overhead.

The real remedy for the present state of things must be found in legislation, and it would be a great pity if that legislation took the form of forcing the Postmaster-General and the Telephone Companies to place all their lines underground, for the very great cost of carrying this out—even where it is possible—must necessarily in the end retard the cheapening of telegrams and keep up the present high prices of subscriptions to Telephone Exchanges.

To deal first with the question of public danger, we may point out that there is no reason why an overhead wire should be more dangerous than a railway bridge crossing a road. The reason why at present the wires are a source of some danger is that when telegraphs were first introduced the wires were run by the side of railways and high roads and other places where their breaking would not be a source of danger. Hence the telegraph engineer put his line up as lightly and cheaply as possible, and, to use a technical term, he introduced a very small factor of safety. It may here be as well to explain what a factor of safety means.

In any engineering work, say a bridge, the dimensions of the different parts are first calculated by means of tables of the strength of materials, so as to be strong enough to bear the maximum strain to which the work is to be put, and then the dimensions are increased so as to be 10, 20, or 50 per cent. stronger. And this percentage is called the factor of safety—generally from the survival of the old habit, overhead wires are designed with an extremely low factor safety. What is required to make overhead lines perfectly safe is for some responsible body, such as the Board of Trade or Board of Works, to have absolute control over all overhead wires erected in towns, and to issue from time to time regulations as to the proper factor of safety to be allowed, and proper inspection of the poles and other parts of the line liable to decay, and have some such power as that now exercised over the railways by the Board of Trade through their inspectors, so as to ensure all overhead lines being really safe.

The question of public convenience and individual inconvenience would perhaps call for more difficult and more complex legislation; but surely some simple machinery might be devised by which the proposed route of any new line should be laid before a responsible body, and, when approved, should be advertised, so that individual proprietors might raise any objections which they might have to the wire passing over their premises, which objections might be discussed before some cheap and simple tribunal. Perhaps this is the point which will be most strongly agitated by the general public. Here there is the obvious difficulty that it will be necessary to prevent a few ill conditioned householders from stopping or adding to the cost of a line really of public utility, and, on the other hand, to protect all householders against needless and vexatious trespass and injury to property. The present system—or, rather, no system—involving, as it does, the consent of the individual householder—which, it appears, is not always obtained—and the jurisdiction, or non-jurisdiction, whichever it may happen really to be, of the district surveyor, is absolutely intolerable.

We further think that any legislation on this subject should control both the Post Office Department and the private Companies, on the ground that, when it was decided that telephonic transmission was an infringement of the monopoly of the Postmaster-General, and when it was arranged between the private Companies and the Post Office Department that the Companies should be allowed to continue their operations under license from the Postmaster-General, the private Companies became really the agents of the Postmaster, and that, therefore, it would be invidious to place restrictions upon them which do not control the action of the Postal Telegraph Department.

However this matter is to be arranged in the future, there can be no doubt but that the whole subject bristles with difficulties, both for the Legislature and for engineers; but the time has now come when the public will no longer submit to the risk of decapitation, the annoyance of unauthorized persons putting up posts on the roofs of their houses, and too often making their leads the scene of free fights, and, which is by no means the least, or least dangerous, of these nuisances, the presence over their heads of rotten posts and wires for which, owing to the break up of some company, nobody can be held responsible.

THE CHOLERA IN EGYPT.

THE completion of Surgeon-General Hunter's third and final Report upon the late cholera epidemic in Egypt is an event of international interest and political importance. The question whether the disease is now and has been for some time past endemic in Egypt is one of deep significance, and demands to be set at rest; for, much as it may concern the mercantile interests of other countries, at present it powerfully affects those of our own, and has no slight bearing on the welfare of all British subjects in the East. The term "endemic" should be understood to mean "existing permanently among the people" rather than "peculiar to them"; for the first interpretation invalidates the false and mischievous argument that a disease originally imported cannot become endemic. The expression of a definite opinion on this point in Surgeon-General Hunter's Report is a special feature. This opinion amounts to a distinct avowal that cholera is and has been for some long period of time endemic in Egypt; and all that has led the author to such a conclusion is given at length.

Thus every one can form some judgment on the value of the evidence itself, as well as on the soundness of the deductions drawn from it. Impatient curiosity on the subject has already produced many authorities. One, a lady, was heard to say that she knew cholera was endemic in Egypt, because a friend had told her so; and at about the same time M. Fauvel was asking the Académie Française to believe that the disease was imported from India because he was the author of that assertion. Now up to the present time the world has been somewhat in the position of the lady and the Académie Française, and as a result the answer to a question of vital value has become one of personal fancy. The Report just laid before Her Majesty's Government should enable the practical part of this question to be set at rest, for it is comprehensive, intelligible, and capable of bearing careful scrutiny. To the cautious critic it suggests the following important questions:—

(1) Was Surgeon-General Hunter a suitable person to have been chosen for the inquiry?

(2) Were the methods by which he conducted that inquiry the best that could have been adopted?

(3) Is the evidence he has obtained trustworthy?

(4) Are the deductions he has drawn from it just?

The answer to the first query can be found without difficulty. A record of Dr. Hunter's services shows that the English Government, in their selection of him, appointed a delegate whose name had always been associated with honour and distinction.

The second question also allows of an answer in the affirmative, for it would be difficult to conceive any plans for finding out what he wished to know better than such as Dr. Hunter adopted. These consisted in making personal visits to numerous towns and villages, holding personal interviews with those who were in a position to give him information, and employing others, whom he specially selected, to make inquiries throughout the Delta and Upper Egypt.

Therefore it is upon the third point—namely, whether or no the evidence obtained is trustworthy—that the burden of discussion has to fall. Critic and judge must therefore weigh this evidence in a careful and impartial spirit—careful because the issue at stake is of the utmost importance; impartial because the question involves many personalities and reputations. This is a *précis* of the chief evidence that bears on the point Dr. Hunter wishes to establish—namely, the existence of cholera in Egypt for months and years previous to its epidemic activity at Damietta on the 22nd of June, 1883:—

(1) Two patients were admitted into the European hospital at Alexandria, one on the 5th of June, 1882, the other on the 17th of April, 1883. Their symptoms are fully reported, and are described as "choliform"; Dr. Mackie and Surgeon-General Hunter, however, agree that those symptoms were typical ones of cholera.

(2) Four cases of cholera are reported by Dr. Mackie, all having occurred in his own practice. Two were in 1872, and the others in the summer of 1881.

(3) Dr. Kartoulis furnishes a suspicious case as having occurred in September 1881.

(4) Dr. Mamlouk mentions two cases, one of a suspicious character which had occurred in 1875, the other a typical case of cholera which he saw in 1879.

(5) Dr. de Castro states that in 1866 he observed several cases of cholera which he considered as a residuum of the epidemic of the previous year. During the last seven years he has seen three cases, one having been previously attacked during the epidemic of 1865.

(6) Dr. Demech states that there was an outbreak of cholera in Upper Egypt which came from the Soudan through Dongola and Wady Halfa, reaching Korosko in November 1872. And he adds that since 1865 not a summer passed without his seeing one or two more or less severe cases of "cholera nostras," and that in 1866 he had two fatal cases in Europeans at Mansourah.

(7) Dr. Fouquet states that he attended a very grave case of "cholera nostras" in September 1881.

(8) Dr. Haddad, in a report dated September 1883, shows that choleraic attacks have been frequent at Assiout for years past, and that they account for one-third of the mortality among the people.

(9) M. Chevalier says:—"I think it will be admitted that there

are some grounds for the belief that cholera has existed in Upper Egypt since 1872."

(10) Dr. Rabitsch reports a typical case of cholera which occurred in the summer of 1878 or 1879 at Cairo.

(11) Dr. Patterson affirms that from 1855 to 1868 he cannot recall a single year in which he did not see well-marked cases of cholera—conveniently classed under the head of "cholera nostras"—and that no one acquainted with the disease could doubt that cholera was endemic in Egypt. He also says that year after year there have been cholera panics, and not without reason, yet no one ever thought of attributing the cause to Asiatic or Indian origin.

(12) Surgeon-Major McNally shows that in the villages near Zagazig diarrhoea with vomiting existed since January 1883, and proved fatal to two hundred persons; that great mortality occurred at Chibin-el-Kom and at Benha prior to the outbreak at Damietta.

(13) Civil Surgeon Honman states that at Miniatt-el-Samanoud and other villages there had been an epidemic of "diarrhoea" in May 1883, during which as many as four a day died out of a population of four thousand.

In addition to this evidence, which was collected in a few weeks, there are reports containing numerous other cases by Drs. Sosino, Ambron, Sierra, and Dutrieux, all gentlemen of well-known position and ability.

So far, then, it seems to us that Dr. Hunter places the Government, to which his final Report is addressed, in this position; it must either accept the fact that a form of disease called by some cholera, by others "cholera nostras," choliform, "cholérine," and diarrhoea, has existed in Egypt for years past, or it must admit that all men are liars. But Dr. Hunter reserves his *bonne bouche* until the end and then serves it up in a special paragraph, thus—"The next and last piece of evidence I have to bring forward is that obtained from an official enjoying a high position under the Egyptian Government, who told Sir Evelyn Baring:—'We all know that cholera has been constant here and generally follows the cattle plague, but we are told to say nothing about it.' Who was this high official? Who gave the order of silence? and who are the 'we' to whom that order applied? These are questions which ought to be answered. We next turn to Dr. Hunter's remarks on the nomenclature of the disease. He says, 'In India the term 'cholera' is only permitted to be used when speaking of a certain group of symptoms; when these are recognized the official return is 'cholera.' 'Choleraic diarrhoea has, for good and sufficient reasons, for some years past been struck out of the Returns. Were the same rule applied to Egypt in the registration of disease, much confusion would be avoided; and such terms as 'cholérine,' 'cholera nostras,' 'choliform,' &c., applied to modified forms of cholera, would cease to exist. If the cases communicated in many of the attached documents be not cases of true cholera, but rather of cholérine and cholera nostras, then Bombay ought no longer to be regarded as the seat of endemic cholera, for the majority of the cases I have seen there during intervals of epidemic activity were cases of so-called 'cholérine,' 'cholera nostras,' &c., and they did not propagate themselves. These several forms of the disease differ in no essential particular, either clinically or pathologically, from one another, and therefore ought to be registered as cholera.'"

The above observations narrow the field of criticism; for, if it be admitted, as indeed it should be, that a something called "cholera nostras," "cholérine," "choliform," or what not, exists throughout the Delta and Upper Egypt as an endemic disease, the only question left at issue is whether the proper name for that something is not cholera. Dr. Hunter says it is; and, if he is right, he is also right in asking the world to believe he has satisfactorily proved that cholera has existed in Egypt in an endemic form since the epidemic of 1865, and that the epidemic of 1883 was consequently the outcome of the disease which existed endemically in the country.

The main question may thus perhaps be reduced to a purely scientific one requiring for its solution clinical, pathological, and physiological knowledge and research. By way of complicating that solution, some will range themselves on Dr. Hunter's side, others will array themselves against him, and a pen-and-paper battle royal may be expected in which one half of the scientific world will probably contradict the other. In the meantime our Government is confronted by the fact that throughout Egypt there exists a malady which is declared by all to resemble cholera, and by many to be the disease in its endemic or modified form; that the whole country is in an unsanitary condition such as is most favourable for the conversion of an endemic scourge into an epidemic one, while the administrative powers of the country are unable to alter the state of affairs. In such circumstances a nation may well inquire what its Government is prepared to do. Will it wait until some scientific body presents it with a specimen of the cholera germ, which will stand in the relation of cause and effect instead of the reverse, or will it take what it can get—a series of effects resulting from an admitted unknown first cause? If it intends to wait, it will be adopting a very risky policy. Or will the Government act upon what it can get? If so, the sooner Dr. Hunter's suggestions are adopted the better.

THE PICTURE GALLERIES.

THE Reynolds exhibition at the Grosvenor Gallery is so important in every respect, historically and biographically, as well as artistically, that we are in danger of neglecting some of its competitors for the public favour. From the Grosvenor to the rooms of the Fine Art Society is but a step, but the effect on a visitor's mind of leaving an assemblage of figure pictures, the newest of which is a hundred years old, and entering a gallery full of landscapes, the oldest of which was painted barely thirty years ago, is by no means unpleasant, and almost a relief. Mr. Hunt's landscapes are of the highest quality which contemporary art can produce. But it is not possible in writing about them to find the interest there is in tracing the story of each of Sir Joshua's sitters, and in hunting through Boswell and Walpole for anecdotes. Besides the Reynolds at the Grosvenor Gallery, there are others at the Royal Academy, and with them some Gainsboroughs and Romneys, which have all the same biographical interest. On the whole it will be best for us to take Mr. Hunt's pictures first, and then proceed to notice the Reynolds at the Grosvenor and Academy which we have not already mentioned, and the pictures by other artists exhibited at Burlington House.

The biographical source of interest is imparted to the Hunt exhibition also by Mr. Gosse's notes. Mr. Gosse's style may be described as "epithetical." He likes calling names; and he calls Mr. Hunt some very pretty names indeed, "in epithetic measured prose." There is always a touch of ungracefulness in writing the biography of a living personage, and all the more if he happens to be your friend. But Mr. Gosse understands his business too well to let his notice be in the least more ungraceful than such a notice must be; and there are circumstances in Mr. Hunt's career well calculated to call forth the best powers of his biographer. Mr. Hunt went to Oxford with a scholarship, and won the Newdigate in 1851 with a poem on "Nineveh." It does not follow from winning the Newdigate that a man is to be called a poet. Far from it. But no one can look at these pictures and fail to see poetry in them all, and still more what Mr. Gosse calls "imaginative refinement," a "mastery over evanescent impressions of form and aerial colour," and a "poetical delicacy of composition." Mr. Hunt is the "sole living representative," we are told, "of the Turner tradition," but while his work wants the vigour of Turner, it has two qualities of its own which enable it to stand well by itself, even in so trying a comparison as this which Mr. Gosse institutes. Mr. Hunt is more faithful to nature than Turner was, and he is more delicate. He composes without violating truth. Any one who has visited Whitby or Durham, or even the Welsh valleys with impossible names, will recognize them at once through the sunny haze, or the evening glow, or the dashing shower. "Few painters," says Mr. Hamerton, "have impressed upon me the necessity for delicacy in water-colours so strongly"; and he goes on to remark that "the poetry of distance, which this distinguished artist has so often conveyed to those who are capable of feeling it, is dependent upon distinctions between pale tones incomparably finer than the recognized differences in musical notation, and resembling rather those faint, indescribable sounds of murmuring wind or water which come to us from afar." Mr. Hunt's oil pictures are wonderfully little known outside the circle of those who watch for them year by year at the exhibition of the Royal Academy. Turner never allowed his work to be killed by its neighbours. But Mr. Hunt is meeker than his master, and his one or two modest landscapes are often overlooked. When we visit the Fine Art Society's rooms, however, we recognize some old friends, and feel sure we shall never neglect them again. "Debatable Land" (108), painted in 1863, has never, we believe, been exhibited before, and will, from its breadth and grandeur, as well as its "delicacy," as aforesaid, be remembered as the chief feature of the present collection. It represents a favourite view with Mr. Hunt, that of Harlech Castle, and is a magnificent work in every way—as careful as a Brett, as gorgeous as a Palmer, and with a poetry of distance and atmosphere Mr. Hunt's own. Some people seem to prefer two views of Whitby—the morning effect (133), showing the harbour at sunrise, with its fishing-boats and sea over which the mist is clearing; and the evening effect (136), with the glowing cliff and the Abbey, and the crowd of tombstones.

It would be too easy to linger over Mr. Hunt's water-colours; but landscapes bear very little description. We can promise the visitor that he will not come away disappointed. There are wonderful rainbows in "Ben Slioch" (16) and "Dolwyddelan Valley" (58); but, on the whole, some of the quieter views—such as "Rokeby" (17) and "Ullswater" (27)—will be generally preferred. Two wooded scenes (98, 99) remind us rather of David Cox than of Turner; and Styhead Pass, with its grand cloud effect, is not like anything but nature. Some of the landscapes—as, for instance, the "Mountain Joyous with Leaves and Streams" (129) and "Summer Days for Me" (126)—are in Mr. Hunt's best manner, and wholly original.

Reynolds's one landscape, the "View from Richmond Hill" (165), is lent by Lord Northbrook to the Grosvenor Gallery, and many people will be forced to institute a comparison between it and the two splendid landscapes by Rubens in the Royal Academy. The juxtaposition of these two works is most happy. The first, "Atalanta and Meleager" (70), is from Mr. Beaumont's

collection. The Calydonian boar is pursued through a tangled thicket, into which the warm sunlight penetrates here and there. The picture is, in the first instance, a landscape, the figures being wholly subordinated. This is not the case with the "Farm at Lacken" (74), lent by the Queen, where the busy milking scene reminds us rather of a Bewick woodcut than anything else. Two finely-coloured damsels occupy the foreground. The cattle are in the middle, a man watering horses to the right, and quite in the background are the farmhouse, the village church, and the green hills. Of a totally different character are the tame, but sweet, poetical landscapes of Richard Wilson, of which the Academy has been fortunate enough to gather no fewer than eight examples, and every one will remark how well they hold their own with the Claudes, of which, however, there are only three examples. The finest of these is Mr. Beaumont's picture (167), briefly described last week, but the smaller, "Flight into Egypt" (162), lent by Lord Mount Temple, has much depth and beauty, while the "Seaport" (172), from the same collection, is of the ordinary type, very delicate and sweet, but not striking.

The Italian pictures at the Academy this winter are a treat for the student, but are not of a character to attract the public in general. There is a room almost entirely devoted to early Italian art, as well as one filled with Dutch pictures, none of which, besides those already mentioned, call for any special notice, being, in fact, for the most part of a highly uninteresting character. The Italian pictures are very curious, though it must be confessed that they are scarcely decorative, viewed as a whole. Among them a very much dilapidated series of portraits, lent by Mr. Willett, are very conspicuous, being no fewer than twelve in number. They formed, when discovered, the frieze of a chamber in a palace near Mantua, and certainly belong to the school of Mantegna, though almost equally certainly not to the great Andrea himself. An exquisitely finished, but highly unpleasant picture, is a "Head of St. John on a Charger" (269). It is evidently painted from a newly-decapitated subject, and but for the delicate gradations of tone, somewhat resembling what Bellini attained, and for an attempt to idealize the head by placing a faint halo, like a lunar rainbow, round it, this picture would be too repulsive even for study. The number of anonymous and unattributed pictures in this department of the present exhibition is so large as to have provoked an unusual amount of guessing on the part of critics, and, coupled with the fact that many of those which have names assigned to them are manifestly unauthentic, makes the Fourth Gallery very interesting, and, as a dealer would say, "speculative," but hardly worth prolonged notice outside the Catalogue, which, by the way, should be praised as a very careful and scholarly production. Before leaving this room, however, we should call attention to a very small Van Eyck, "Virgin and Child" (267), which is lent by Mr. Weld Blundell. It evidently represents a room in the house of John Arnolfini, whose portrait is in the National Gallery—a house which was only pulled down a few years ago by the Municipality of Bruges. The whole painting measures only ten inches by eight, and is rather like an illumination than a picture, but is, as usual with Van Eyck, fully harmonized and highly finished, but without servility. It is also in wholly unsophisticated condition; and, take it altogether, is, for its size, one of the most pleasing and beautiful works in the exhibition.

The famous portrait of Mrs. Sheridan as "St. Cecilia" (209), by Reynolds, in the Great Gallery, has been so over-praised that one approaches it with diffidence. The right-angled nature of the composition, the heaviness and dusky of the shadows, the want of anatomical definiteness in the face and hands, are disappointing, as is the total absence of colour. The picture might be a mezzotint instead of an oil painting, and has either faded of late years, or else never possessed any lifelike warmth. At the same time it would be absurd to deny it the characteristics of beauty, sentiment, and grace, as well as of historically interesting association. Romney's "Lady Hamilton as a Bacchante" (212) hangs close by and is a very pleasing picture, and should be compared with the same artist's "Mrs. Jordan" (200). Both are conspicuous for the beauty of the faces and the unsubstantial character of the forms. They contrast unfavourably with Vandyck's "Henrietta Maria" (194) and Lely's "Eleanor, Lady Byron" (181), which are examples to show that grace and delicacy are not incompatible with solidity and anatomical completeness. A very theatrical and affected "Viscountess Crosbie" (148), a very dignified and soberly-coloured "Colonel St. Leger" (149), both by Sir Joshua, are hung at the end of the room, with two fine Gainsboroughs, "George IV., as Prince of Wales" (151), and "Mrs. Douglas" (152), and a great sprawling "Apotheosis" (150), by Rubens (a ceiling from Osterley), between them. The immense size of this canvas only brings out its faults more conspicuously.

There are many other pictures, both here and at the Grosvenor Gallery, over which it would be easy to linger. Among them we may specially mention the beautiful, if somewhat conventional, "Schoolboy" at the Grosvenor (192), which is well known by engravers; an unfinished "Marquis of Rockingham and his Secretary, Edmund Burke" (197), which would have proved, had it been carried out, one of Sir Joshua's masterpieces, and a very solid and ugly "Edward Gibbon" (59) in the Academy.

LOW WATER.

IT is a pity that Mr. Pinero's energetic protest against the production of *Low Water* at the Globe was not made public before its presentation. For, however fortuitous the verdict of a theatrical audience may be in these days of extreme toleration the faults of this play are too palpable to make its success probable to the most sanguine. If ever we are to have attached to the national dramatic college of the future a school of training for young playwrights, a useful feature of such an institution would be a stage of experiment, where *Low Water* might be given as an example of how not to do it. Salutary the example would prove; profitable, beyond doubt, as a deterrent. Mr. Pinero has expressed the hope that *Low Water* may be speedily forgotten; but, with a little inconsistency, promises to present it some day in another manner—a singular device to ensure its oblivion. It is as if, like the Ancient Mariner, having “penance done,” he “penance more will do.” We sincerely hope this may not be; but, although the recollection of suffering may be as fugitive as that of pleasure, the theatrical public is not much changed from what it was in Garrick's time, and forgives more than it forgets.

The leading motive of Mr. Pinero's play is highly susceptible of dramatic treatment, and is not of such a kind as to be alien to the spirit of comedy, despite its strong element of pathos. A favourite and petted daughter is seduced from her father's home by a wealthy scoundrel and is forsaken by him. In the meanwhile the father is ruined, and lives with his remaining daughter and son in the retirement of the Waterloo Road, all three finding occupation in a neighbouring theatre. The father believes his runaway daughter to be married, and is supported in his fond credulity by his son and daughter, who dare not tell him the truth. To their poor lodgings the erring child returns and is welcomed by her sister; the man she loves has also appeared, offers reparation to the sister in the shape of money, which is, of course, indignantly repelled; meets with a severe accident, and is nursed through subsequent illness by the woman he has wronged. In the final act all the persons of the drama meet at the chambers of the invalid in a most inexplicable manner; the truth is revealed to the agonized father through the agency of a legal person, but his grief is turned into joy at the last moment by the entrance of his daughter and the repentant invalid as man and wife, accompanied by the clergyman, doctor, and witnesses. It is clear that the failure of *Low Water* to move the audience to any other emotion than derisive laughter is due not to the solemn pathos of the subject but to the author's treatment of the pathetic. To move to laughter is not the chief, or indeed a necessary, end in comedy. The writer of farce may with propriety evoke the figure of Laughter holding both his sides; mirth is complex in expression, and the spirit of buffoonery is ungenial to the muse of Comedy. Mr. Pinero seems to have forgotten that the ludicrous in art may as easily give offence as provoke laughter; certainly in the present instance he constantly outrages nature and truth. Throughout the play we have a violent alternation of pathos and farce, mutually destructive, and the wanton introduction of the grossest absurdities, to the degradation of those scenes where the purest pathos is paramount. Indifferent to the finer feelings, careless of imperilling the dignity of his subject, the author has determined to raise a laugh, even in his own despite or at the expense of his own creations and the humiliation of their impersonators. The spirited scenes where the offer of reparation is made, through Mr. Vereker, Q.C., to Linklater's daughter, and the pathetic meeting of the two sisters, are both rendered abortive by the unseemly intrusion of farce. In the former the dialogue is interrupted by the entrance of a man with a small sack of coal, with which he advances to a settee, occupied by Mr. Vereker, which turns out, to his surprise and that of the audience, to be an improvised coal-cellar. The transformation is effected in the true spirit of pantomime; the ludicrous result is ineffaceable, the dignity and spirit of “the Major” (Linklater's daughter), and the dry humour and imperturbable politeness of Mr. Vereker, are rendered ineffective by this happy invention. It is unnecessary to specify other instances of perverse ingenuity, for in the whole “comedy” the spirit of wanton and puerile aggression runs riot.

It is difficult to criticize the representation, still more difficult not to commiserate the actors in their thankless task. Congruous construction in competent hands invariably produces harmonious representation, and it is not surprising that in the final scene some of the Globe company displayed no effort to conceal their sympathy with the attitude of the audience. The knowledge that their endeavours were wasted, and that the more excellent their acting the more they confounded truth and libelled nature, the long-continued strain of their false position, the certainty that their passion and pathos must submit to some maladroit buffoonery, were all sufficient to try them to the uttermost. Mr. Cartwright, as Lord George Ormolu, and Mr. Carton, who represented the shrewd and cynical Mr. Vereker, were less subjected to the unpleasant influence of which we have spoken. The former endowed his part with all the nature and consistency possible under the circumstances. Mr. Carton's impersonation of the Q.C., a type new to the stage, was distinguished by its truth and finish and refinement; the contrast between the keen cynicism of his speech and the urbane grace of his manner was excellently maintained. Indeed, despite its unhappy vehicle, this striking piece of acting marks another advance in the young actor's career. Mr. J. F. Young, as Mr. Linklater, and Miss Abington, as his truant

daughter Rosamond, had to bear the brunt of the ridiculous situations in which the author has seen fit to place his characters. The very excellence of their performance enhanced the absurdity of their position; the sorrows of the one, the penitence and self-devotion of the other, were displayed with real force and natural feeling, to be inevitably nullified by the pitiless destiny of the drama.

THE REAWAKENING OF SPECULATION.

THE number and frequency of colonial loans now coming out, and the success that has attended those of them already issued, are attracting much attention in the City. That the New South Wales loan should be readily subscribed was a matter of course. The colony has vast resources, and the Government has been sparing in the use of its credit. But the high prices at which the Cape Colony and New Zealand loans have been taken have excited some surprise. Respecting the financial position of New Zealand we spoke at length last week, and we need only say of the Cape Colony that its political difficulties are not small, especially because of the large native population subject to its jurisdiction. Nevertheless the Cape loan was allotted at a price 4s. above the minimum fixed by the Colonial Government itself; while the New Zealand loan fetched nearly 2l. more than the minimum fixed by the New Zealand Government; and both loans have since been quoted much higher on the Stock Exchange. The Cape loan this week has been at a premium of 4 per cent., and the New Zealand loan at $\frac{1}{2}$ premium. It is evident from all this that a disposition to speculate is once more revealing itself on the Stock Exchange. And that it is so further appears from the rise in Egyptian bonds and other foreign stocks when the late Egyptian Ministry resigned. As the resignation was caused by the interference of the British Government, it was assumed that a British protectorate was about to be established, and prices rose very considerably. If English Ministers had been appointed, prices would have gone up still higher; indeed, there would probably have been an active speculation not only in Egyptian but in most foreign stocks. This disposition on the part of those who transact business on the Stock Exchange is in striking contrast with that which has prevailed for two years past. The great fall in prices consequent upon the panic on the Paris Bourse, the mutiny of the Egyptian army, and the collapse of the railway mania in the United States, has inflicted very serious losses upon speculators and upon such investors as have been compelled to sell, or have required to borrow upon the security of the bonds and shares they hold. In consequence there has been a great falling off in business on the Stock Exchange. It is estimated by stockbrokers who do an investment business proper that their commissions last year were only about two-thirds of those of an average year. And brokers whose business is principally speculative suffered still more heavily. It is in accordance with experience that after so long a depression there should be a revival. In the worst of years there are large savings accumulated in this country, and investors therefore have considerable sums which they wish to place in some good security. Owing to the agricultural depression, and to the too-rapid building of houses in most of the great towns, there is little desire to buy land or houses, or to advance money on mortgage on either kind of property. Foreign stocks are out of favour because of the political condition of the Continent and of Egypt, while American railway securities are discredited because of the mismanagement by presidents and the generally unsettled condition of railway business in the United States. At home, again, Consols and railway securities are very dear. Thus investors are almost driven to buy Colonial Government securities. At this season of the year the sums available for investment are exceptionally large. It is estimated that during the first fortnight in January the dividends payable in London alone amount to about 30 millions sterling, and of this large sum the greater part probably is reinvested. The Colonial Governments, then, have chosen an opportune moment for appealing to the money market. And in this fact is to a large extent an explanation of the high prices they have obtained for their bonds. The average price paid for the Cape loan was 98l. 4s.; and as the loan bore 5 per cent. interest, the purchaser obtained somewhat more than 5 per cent. for his money. As the Cape Colony is an English community, with English laws and institutions, and subject to a certain extent to the control of the Imperial Government, it is assumed by investors that failure to pay the interest is not to be feared. Somehow or other, they vaguely reason, the Imperial Government would help it out of its difficulties, even were political or other embarrassments to involve it very seriously at any time. In the case of the New Zealand loan the interest was only 4 per cent., and the price obtained was about 2l. higher than that given for the Cape loan. But besides the English constitution of the colony, and the good faith it has always kept with its creditors, the fact that the loan was brought out by the Bank of England was greatly in its favour. The Bank is the Imperial Government's banker, a consideration that has its weight with investors not skilled in politics. And those of them who know that the Bank, nevertheless, is not a State bank but a trading company took it for granted that so great an institution would not invite the public to subscribe to the loan if it had not satisfied itself of the soundness of New Zealand finance. Not a few of those who applied for the scrip were decided by the sponsorship of the Bank of England. Speculators

of course, were well aware of all the circumstances that tell in favour of the success of these colonial issues, and they sent in applications for the loans, thus increasing the competition, and forcing up the prices. And, as already stated, they have still further raised prices since the allotments.

The particular causes acting upon the market for colonial Government securities are aided by more general influences. It is now two years since the panic on the Paris Bourse, and during that time there has been going on a slow liquidation of the bad business accumulated during the preceding period of inflation. The great financial houses of Paris, in their anxiety to cut short the panic, made immense loans to the speculators to prevent too many failures, and by so doing they to a great extent hampered themselves. They hoped, of course, that a little while would bring about a rise of prices, and that their debtors would then be able to sell without serious loss, and that the market would once more right itself. But political causes of disquietude disappointed them. The finances of the country fell into disorder; the Government plunged into a disturbing colonial policy, which threatened to bring about quarrels with several of the neighbouring States; the Austro-German alliance attracted to itself Italy and Spain, isolating France, and surrounding her with a ring of suspicious, if not hostile, Powers, able at any moment to humiliate her. The revolt of Arabi in Egypt, too, led to the loss of her influence in that country. And, lastly, anarchist movements began to reappear. All these events tended to alarm speculators and investors alike, and led to a continued fall of prices. Each successive fall caused additional losses, and every new loss induced a further fall. It is believed, however, now that the speculators, who were unable to meet their obligations two years ago, and were enabled to hold on only by assistance from the great financial houses, have been got rid of. The selling by these speculators has been on an enormous scale, and has been continued for two years almost without intermission. The result is that the losses by French speculators have been immense. The speculators who now remain with large masses of stock upon their hands are thought really to have means to hold on as long as may be necessary. In consequence, those who are interested in the market feel their position much safer than it has been during the past twenty-four months. They think that, if a rise of prices were to take place, the movement would not be stopped by renewed selling on the part of those who are practically bankrupt. And they are eager, therefore, that the rise should occur, as it would enable themselves to sell without loss, and in such a gradual and careful manner as would not check the upward course of the market. In addition to this, it is to be borne in mind that the Government is about to bring out a loan. For two years it has required money, but the condition of the Bourse forbade it to issue a public loan. The Government is, therefore, anxious in its own interest to see an advance in prices. The French Government influences the money market and the stock market much more directly than our Government does, and all the great capitalists who are amenable to its influence are eager to second its efforts in bringing about greater confidence in the financial situation. Lastly, the great Railway Companies are preparing to issue loans. Last year they entered into conventions with the Government, undertaking to build the new lines which the Government found itself unable to construct. They can fulfil the obligations then contracted only by means of loans; and, unless the money market is inspired with confidence, these loans can hardly succeed, or must be made on terms extremely disadvantageous to the great Railway Companies. But the great Railway Companies in France are themselves a great power in the money market. They make loans and discount bills more like bankers than English Railway Companies; and the result is that, when they join their exertions to those of the great capitalists and of the Government, they are able to affect prices very powerfully. For all these reasons there has been a marked change in the Paris Bourse during the past few weeks. Political causes may, of course, neutralize the efforts made to raise prices. But, if there should be no disaster in Tonquin, and if the political condition of the Continent should not again inspire apprehensions, the probability seems to be that the recovery in the Paris Bourse which has already begun will go on steadily. The greater confidence felt in Paris immediately reacts upon the London market. London and Paris are so closely united, and the interests of both are entwined in so many ways, that whatever strongly affects one also acts powerfully upon the other. Brokers and dealers on the Stock Exchange, and bankers here in London, learn through their correspondents that the prospect of things in Paris has greatly improved. They are thereby encouraged themselves, and they encourage their clients by the reports they give.

In New York, likewise, there is a prospect of recovery. In 1882 over 12,000 miles of railway were built in the United States. Last year the mileage constructed was only half as large. And in the current year it is estimated that less than 2,000 miles will be built, and that no new line of any kind will be undertaken, the mileage now under construction being merely completion of work already far advanced. The difficulties originating in the over-construction of railways will, therefore, not be augmented. Time has been given for the liquidation of much of the bad business of past years, and the growth of population and wealth are making up for the losses that have been incurred. Moreover, it would appear that the failures of which we now hear, and the appointment of receivers over Railway Companies and Construction Companies, are really the winding-up of the period of depression through which

the United States have passed. The older Railway Companies, which have immense capitals and almost inexhaustible resources, and which were threatened with competition by the new Companies, have been endeavouring for the past couple of years to ruin the latter. In some cases apparently they have now succeeded. They will, therefore, buy up these bankrupt concerns, add them to their own systems, and put a stop to the manœuvres which were disturbing the market and injuring trade. Where, on the other hand, the new Companies have displayed greater strength than was anticipated, the old and the new will come to some kind of terms. They will divide the traffic between them, and both will have an interest in improving matters. It would seem, therefore, that after about two and a half years the difficulties in the United States caused by the over-construction of railways are drawing to an end, and that a considerable rise of prices in American railway securities may be soon expected. That, at any rate, is the opinion of those who have the best means of judging, and who have watched most intently the course of events in the United States. And the opinion thus formed is permeating the Stock Exchange, and is helping to produce that change of feeling which was exemplified in the success of the colonial loans and the rise in Egyptian, Turkish, and other securities at the time of the change of Ministry in Egypt.

REVIEWS.

EARLY TEUTONIC LAND-HOLDING.*

DURING the last half-century the labour and research of several scholars, chiefly in Germany, has worked out from a mass of scattered materials a fairly consistent account of the early history of landed property among the Teutonic stock of mankind. This account has gained very general acceptance among competent persons. It has received striking illustration and confirmation from observations made in a remote country, and for entirely different purposes, but minutely and systematically, by persons who knew nothing of the researches in question. We allude to the facts of Indian society which Sir Henry Maine, in his work on *Village Communities*, has exhibited side by side with the results of European inquiries. To that work, also, the English reader may most conveniently be referred for general knowledge of what the European results are. We may here say briefly that the accepted exposition shows a convergence of evidence to the conclusion that private property in land, as we understand it, is a relatively modern institution. Many points of usage and law which are found not only in the records of the earlier middle ages, but in the fully developed mediæval system, and even until our own time, seem to come down from a period when absolute ownership was an exception or innovation, and limited rights of use and enjoyment by the members of free communities under some scheme of communal regulation were the ancient and accustomed rule. Such is the doctrine which may be fairly described as in possession. To say this is not to say that it is exempt from criticism, but, on the contrary, that criticism is desirable. Theories in possession ought to be periodically tested by revision and re-examination of their evidences, accompanied of course by collation of the newer evidence, if such has meanwhile been found, on pain of losing their vitality. The fate of a theory left untested is to become a dry bone for letter-worshippers to wrangle over, and sciolists to make a pretence of learning with. Now in this case the theory represented by the names of Von Maurer in Germany and Kemble in England has been in possession for the space of about a generation. It has reached the stage of being popularized—a stage that rouses the attention of scholars and invites vigilance. In England, at any rate, much new material has come to hand, and there is promise of more. The time appears ripe for critical revision. And criticism is welcome on one condition, that it be competent and intelligent. If it be so, whether we agree with it or not is no great matter. Its function is not so much to correct specific conclusions as to keep thought fresh.

Within a short time two English books have been published, one on the English evidences of the village community, the other on the German; the former in part of a critical kind, the latter wholly. These are Mr. Seebohm's *English Village Community* and Mr. Denman W. Ross's *Early History of Land-holding among the Germans*. They proceed to some extent on similar lines, and Mr. Seebohm appears to have been to some extent impressed by communications of Mr. Ross's views. It is these last which now call for our attention. Mr. Denman Ross professes, and with sufficient frankness, to criticize the doctrine commonly received. Is he a competent and intelligent critic? We find ourselves constrained to pronounce, and that with no uncertain sound, that he is neither.

It is the more needful to speak plainly because Mr. Ross's work is, at first sight, by no means without a plausible air of being of the right and acceptable kind. The tone and promises of his preface are free from offence; and an unnecessary quotation from Balzac is pardonable in an essay-writer who, for the very reason that his work is on a subject of unfamiliar learning, is anxious to give it a stamp of literary form. The appendix of notes and references, which in bulk exceeds the text by many pages, makes

* *Early History of Land-holding among the Germans*. By DENMAN W. ROSS. London: Trübner & Co. 1883.

a goodly show of citations from original authorities. In short, the book is got up with a look of solid work. But, assuming for a moment that Mr. Denman Ross is our first introducer to the subject (a misfortune that we trust may never befall any innocent reader), we shall soon find suspicious tokens. The author's object is nothing less than to overturn the received opinion as to the history of property. One would expect a young author setting about such an enterprise to observe a certain measure of gravity and modesty. The manner in which he does speak is this:—

There is no evidence of community of land in the statements of Caesar. . . . There is no evidence of community of land in the statements of Tacitus.

And thus in the notes:—

We hear a good deal of talk about a tribal system which existed among the Germans up to the time of Caesar and Tacitus. It may be that a tribal system did exist up to that time; but what do we know about it? Nothing, of course. Why talk about it, then?

We should, for our own poor part, submit that we know at least what Caesar and Tacitus tell us. But Mr. Denman Ross has his short ways with Caesar and Tacitus and their language, as we shall see anon. Meanwhile, there are yet braver words to be noted. Mr. Ross, having described the received doctrine as "a theory of primitive communism" (a description to which we might take exception if it were worth the pains), proceeds thus to state his own:—

We hold a theory which is quite the reverse of this. We believe that private property existed first; that common property came into existence afterwards, in consequence of an entanglement of individual rights and gradual annihilation of them; and this theory is, we believe, supported by the concurrent testimony of the early records. From these it is evident that the principle of individual property was dominant everywhere. Those who hold to the theory of primitive communism cannot have read these records with sufficient care, if, indeed, they have read them at all.

This is no light thing to say, and said of no obscure men. Mr. Ross names no names. But there can be no doubt what and whom he means. To read historical records without sufficient care is incompetence. To profess to give an account of their contents, and offer general conclusions purporting to be based thereon, without having read them at all, is bad faith. Von Maurer, and all who agree with him, stand therefore charged with bad faith, or incompetence, or both, by Mr. Denman Ross. When such a charge is made by a qualified person and on probable cause, it is a very grave matter. When it is made by a person not qualified, and without reasonable or probable cause, it is a gross and unpardonable impertinence. It becomes needful to see what are Mr. Denman Ross's qualifications as exhibited by himself. And what we find is this: Mr. Ross's Latin will not bear examination, and his state of mind as to the most elementary legal notions can be described only as ludicrous ignorance. First, as to the Latin. Tacitus says of the German occupation of land as he knew it, "*Facilitatem partiendi camporum spatia præstant*"; that is, to give the sense roughly, there is no trouble in setting out allotments when there is plenty of open ground to choose from. Mr. Denman Ross interprets thus:—"The land upon which the lots had been marked off was, therefore, divided into sections—what Tacitus calls *spatia camporum*." And he adds in a note, "This interpretation will perhaps surprise the reader." Before he has taken the measure of Mr. Denman Ross's general capacity, yes; afterwards, no. "The words used by Tacitus bear the interpretation." They do not. Whatever Mr. Denman Ross may think, the Latin language will not suffer it, and no tolerable Latin scholar could have produced such a rendering. Our surprise is less when Mr. Ross also maintains that Caesar's words, "*privati ac separati agri apud eos nihil est*," do not exclude the existence, and indeed prevalence, of private estates. Mr. Ross triumphantly observes in another note that the Germans of Caesar's time "had possessions, as Caesar himself tells us." Yes; the word is *possessio*, a word which Caesar, knowing his own language and his own law, doubtless used for the very purpose of distinguishing possession from full ownership or *dominium*, with which Mr. Ross confounds it himself, and wants to make Caesar confound it too.

This brings us to Mr. Ross's law. His conception of *dominium*, or ownership in the full meaning, is extensive. It includes not only possession but servitude; in plainer terms, Mr. Denman Ross does not know the difference between ownership and an easement, between property and *jura in re aliena*. This, in a writer who undertakes to reconstruct the history of property, may seem incredible. But here are the proofs:—

We read, in the Burgundian law, that the possession or ownership of the roads in which wagons and carts were wont to pass could be lost or acquired by occupation during two years.

We read in the Burgundian law that the ownership of a running stream could be acquired by an exclusive enjoyment during two years, so that the previous owner could have no further right in it.

The passages cited as authority are these:—

Viam in actum, hoc est, ubi carpenta vel carra ducentur, similiter biennio amitti et adquiri posse.

Aque cursum et adquiri et amitti biennio constat.

It is almost insulting our reader's intelligence to remind him that *viam* and *aque cursum* have nothing to do with ownership of the road and the stream. They are respectively the right of way and the right of leading water over a neighbour's land—rights available against the owner of the soil of the road or the adjacent land through and over which the stream is led. Mr. Ross evidently imagines, moreover, that the words *amitti et adquiri* refer to one and the same process; but we cannot go on exposing blunders patent to any student who has ever been

grounded in the Institutes. As if to clinch his blunder, Mr. Ross in another note mixes up the formula "*cum aquis aquarumve decursibus*," a conveyance of the easement of watercourses in "general words" as English lawyers call them, with such a phrase as "*potestative manu possidere usque ad medium Hrenum*," which does refer to ownership—namely, the ownership of the bed of the river vested in the riparian owner *usque ad medium filum*, as we commonly say.

And this is the author who goes about to look down on his predecessors as bunglers who could not or would not read their documents. Truly, it may well be that the work of such as Von Maurer needs revision and adjustment, more or less; but at the hands of such as are worthy to touch it, who are at least passable Latinists, and know so much of law as to have heard of a servitude. Whence the next fruitful impulse may come we know not. It is enough to be assured that it will not be from Mr. Denman Ross, or after his fashion:—

οὐκ οἶδα μὰ Δι' ἔργων· τῆδε μὲν γὰρ οἶ.

Mr. Ross tells us he has spent seven years in study of the original authorities. If so, he has spent them very ill. His want of previous elementary training has made his labour worse than idleness. He is like a man who, not knowing the rudiments of mechanics or construction, should spend seven years in a builder's yard, and then come out of it with a new theory of architecture. But, as a modern poet says,

*Und baute der Spatz ein Adlernest,
Er leg't' nur Spatzeneier hinein.*

The samples of Mr. Ross's work above given are enough to show that it is not worth criticizing in detail. If we undertook that task, it would be embarrassing by superabundance of material. We shall only point out in brief the general line of his errors. He starts with a radical misconception of the nature of the problem, which he treats as if the question were between communal and individual property; whereas the position of the doctrine attacked by Mr. Denman Ross is not that land was the property of tribes or communities, but rather that the modern conception of property in land was of slow growth, and that the term, as we use it, is not applicable to the state of things revealed or hinted by the authorities. So much Mr. Ross might have learnt from an English writer who figures among his pretentious list of references—a writer of works which did not profess to confute all predecessors, and did contain much good sense and excellent learning (neither was he ashamed to learn to the last); we mean the late Mr. Joshua Williams. The same thing holds good to this day in an undivided Hindu family. Again, Mr. Ross, having thoroughly mixed up the notions of dominion, possession, enjoyment, and servitude, is unable to discriminate the bearings of his authorities. Of these a certain number show, no doubt, that some private property did exist from very early times in land, especially land reclaimed by a man's own labour—a thing which nobody denies that we know of. Assuredly Von Maurer does not. Another class of authorities may charitably be deemed ambiguous. A third, and these are the critical ones; are in flat opposition to Mr. Denman Ross's fancies. His general method has the merit of simplicity. Being incapable of conceiving that a legal right which is something different from absolute property should be an object of inheritance, partition, or the like, whenever he meets with evidence of any right whatever being so dealt with he sets it down as a clear instance of separate ownership of the land itself. Mr. Joshua Williams has a useful chapter on incorporeal hereditaments. When Mr. Ross comes to an obviously refractory document like the Edict of Chilperic, or the title "*De Migrantibus*" of the Salic Law, his attempts to wrest it to his own sense are merely pitiable. Whether his airy rashness disports itself in superficial assertions about Hindu villages, or the Russian *mir*, or modern authors who are alleged to support Mr. Ross's contention and do no such thing, the like levity and fundamental ignorance appear throughout. And with this let enough be said of one of the worst attempts to pass off impertinence for scholarship that we have seen this many a day.

We hope hereafter to return to this subject, unencumbered by the need of exposing absurdities, but to the English side of it rather than the German. Each nation will have plenty to do for some time to come in attending to its own matters of this kind—not excluding, of course, the use of others for comparison, but still putting its own first.

THE NEW LUCIAN.*

BOOKS which have a definite ambition to rank as literature are somewhat rare nowadays—a statement which is by no means identical with the much more contestable statement that writers who would like to rank as men of letters are rare. Among these books *The New Lucian* certainly has a place, and it is a place in a particular department of literature which has never been very full, though it contains some of the best work anywhere to be found. If Mr. Traill can win his spurs he must win them in a tournament with Plato, with Lucian himself, with Erasmus, with St. Ervmond, with Berkeley, with Landor, while, despite the difference of outward form, Pascal and Courier and Swift are likely to be present to the minds of the judges if not in the actual lists. This is a mighty "concurrence,"

* *The New Lucian*. By H. D. Traill. London: Chapman & Hall, 1884.

and a blank shield which enters therefor is much more likely to go home with its owner upon it than in any other fashion. To the general spectator Mr. Traill's shield is very likely to be blank, for with the exception of his remarkable *Recaptured Rhymes* and his monograph on Sterne, most of his work has been done under the coat of darkness of the anonymous journalist. There are, however, no coats whose darkness is absolutely impenetrable, and Mr. Traill is sufficiently well known to those who do know as one of the most accomplished among those English journalists—never a very large body—who combine literary knowledge with political aptitude, and both with a faculty of writing. He is, before all things, a politician, and, as happens to almost all politicians whose politics are a matter of choice rather than of accident, his creed is not exactly identical with any that is commonly received. The nearest formula that we can find for Mr. Traill is the formula of unorthodox Toryism. Yet even under this formula he is a kind of species by himself. Mr. Traill differs from the two great unorthodox Tories of the past in England—Lord Beaconsfield and Lord Bolingbroke—in so much as he is entirely anti-Democratic. He agrees with Bolingbroke at least in that he seems to be, if he is not, antiecclesiastical, not to say anti-religious. And he has a further differential in that, to judge by this no less than by former published utterances of his, he dislikes Lord Beaconsfield's foreign policy. With one exception to be noted later, the severest criticism in the book which can be fairly taken as expressing the author's sentiments is the criticism put in the mouth of Sir Robert Peel on Lord Beaconsfield's second Premiership. Thus Mr. Traill is doubly unorthodox. He is a kind of "Desdichado Doblado" as far as the direct intellectual succession of Toryism goes. A Church dominant at home and a State dominant abroad may be said to be the shibboleth of modern Toryism which is not mere Conservatism. We do not think that Mr. Traill can shape his mouth to pronounce it. He certainly does not here attempt so to shape the mouth of any of his characters.

There are fourteen dialogues of the dead in the present volume, and all of them are timed so as to be actually or nearly contemporary in subject. In passing we may note that though this arrangement might give the separate papers more "bite" as magazine articles, and may even for a short time render the book itself more attractive, it has induced Mr. Traill to be lavish of allusions in a fashion rather perilous to the chance of his book living. Personally we should not dare to edit it for the use of the twenty-first century, let alone a remoter posterity, without, on an average, a page of footnotes to each page of text, and it is not the experience of students that work of this sort is in the particular kind lasting work. This, however, is by the bye. The first interlocutors are Lord Westbury and the late Bishop of Oxford. In this dialogue, whether owing to the above-noted anti-theological prejudice or not, Mr. Traill has scarcely given swords of the very equal length which students of their debates in life would assign to the two disputants. Save for a smart capping in the citation of an Article and one or two other things, Bishop Wilberforce's repartees are scarcely those of the Samuel whom we knew. On the other hand, Lord Westbury is well provided, and his jokes help out the apparent drift of the dialogue (which is in the direction of Erastianism) a good deal more than his arguments. The next, "Morny, Gambetta, and Blanqui," is on the whole the very best in the book—indeed it is a piece of work which deserves to live. The affectation of horror for the minion of a corrupt tyranny which the Dictator, rather from habitual bombast than Pharisaism, makes when he is introduced to the Duc de Morny, the unfaltering cynicism of the latter, and the adroit fashion in which he turns the tables on his censor by calling the great Intransigent into the discussion, are rendered with a very great deal of skill and with hardly a fault in dialectic. M. de Morny wins hands down—a result which will make some good people shake their heads over Mr. Traill. After this we drop politics, and in "Plato and Landor" come to literature. Here we do not think Mr. Traill quite so happy, though he has caught Landor's own manner with considerable skill, and makes not a few points against "neo-Hellenists" in English. Even this piece turns to politics; and, little space as we have for quotation, we must give (without agreeing with all its sentiments) a really fine passage with which it concludes:—

Wherever in the world a people has passed under the sway of England, their lives, in becoming more abundant, have ceased to satisfy their ideals. We have broken in upon the secular calm of ancient and outworn civilisations, and over minds which once reposed in a passive and incurious contentment we have cast the spell of our own unsatisfied longings. The savage whom we tame unlearns his simple delight in Nature, and gains access only to our coarser and viler pleasures in its stead. We have peopled one whole continent with our lank-jawed kinsmen, and fringed another with the careworn faces of our sons. A full half of the globe's surface is given over to the melancholy Englishman—with his sombre attire, his repellent manners, his gloomy worship, his mechanic habitudes of toil. The human instinct of self-preservation will not long tolerate such a dominion as this; the human yearning after gladness will rise up in rebellion against it, and we are bound therefore in common prudence to seek the Hellenic spirit and ensue it, reverently striving, if haply it may admit us to its inspiring visions of the beautiful, and yield up to us the secret of its immortal joy.

The fourth, "Lord Beaconsfield and Sir Robert Peel," is short but clever. It has been hinted that Mr. Traill is apparently not very favourably disposed towards the late leader of the Conservative party, though his actual dialogue is by no means badly hit off; and there is a severe passage on the failure of Peel himself to leave any durable mark on English politics except the one great fiscal change, the merit of which has practically been claimed and

appropriated by his political adversaries. With "Lucian and Pascal" we should imagine that Mr. Traill has taken particular pains, and here again there seems to be reflected a certain echo of his own opinions in the words of the Samosatene. Theologically speaking, the dialogue may be said to turn on the well-known and often-noted differential between pre- and post-Christian thinkers, the absence in the one and the presence in the other of the sense of sin and other riddles of the earth. After a good deal of fencing, Lucian frankly avows his complete ignorance of and indifference to these problems, and more than hints that whoever has brought the sense and the discussion of them into the world has conferred a very doubtful benefit upon it. In the next piece, O'Connell, to the horror of Mr. Butt, takes the Parnellites under his protection, hails them as his successors and children, and expresses his delight in seeing England bothered. The piece is spiritedly written, but O'Connell was probably less of a cynic, and Mr. Butt was certainly less of a prig, than Mr. Traill here represents them.

Finding the next dialogue unworthy, we for the present pass it by; and luckily its follower is excellent. The point of it lies in a most lively portrait of Mr. Gladstone and character of his eloquence given by Mr. Horsman to Burke. This partly springs from and partly leads to a discussion of English Democracy, in which Mr. Traill's pessimism is more apparent than his hold of any definite political creed. "Richardson and Fielding" is a little weak, the subject being a hackneyed one, and nothing very new or brilliant contributed to it; while in "Peter the Great and Alexander II." it does not need great affection for Russia or her late sovereign to make the reader think Mr. Traill rather hard on Alexander. Neither is "Sterne and Thackeray" satisfactory. Mr. Traill is a sworn champion of Sterne, and does right to make him fight his own battles with vigour and address, for he was very well able to do so. And it is ingenious, no doubt, to put the case between this century and the last as between hypocrites of cynicism and hypocrites of sensibility. But Thackeray is made to argue his own case very weakly. "Lord Palmerston and Richard Cobden" is short and not remarkable; and the last dialogue in the book, "Lucretius, Paley, and Darwin," good in parts, is marred by the almost complete silence of Lucretius. The reader feels that he must have been very much bored. Now, nobody who ever lived had a right to bore the author of the *De Rerum Natura*, and if they did, so much the worse for them. Between these two comes an interesting discussion partly of Mr. Irving's acting and partly of Diderot's paradox between Garrick and G. H. Lewes. Here Mr. Traill—constant to sensibility—makes the author of the *Life of Goethe* argue strongly against Diderot, and Garrick somewhat weakly defend him.

We must apologize if, in noticing the contents of a book which is from its nature not easy to review as a whole, we have attributed to Mr. Traill any opinions to which he wished to give merely dramatic expression. It is the misfortune of the dialogue-writer that he can rarely avoid taking a side; and, when he does take it, can hardly ever avoid letting it be seen. Mr. Traill—and this is one of the merits of his book—has not, as almost all writers in this class nowadays do, merely set up certain ninepins to be bowled down. But he has, no doubt unconsciously, put much more force and a much cunninger bias on those bowls which are delivered as he would like to deliver them himself. And in so doing he has, as it seems to us, displayed occasionally some prejudice and some misconception. This, however, does not prevent his book, on the whole, from being excellently written and full of a remarkable cleverness—a cleverness almost impossible to illustrate except by very copious extract. Now a review which is stuffed with quotations is an easy review to write, and sometimes a satisfactory one both to author and reader; but it is a review of but a low class as criticism. We therefore simply refer readers to the book for an abundance of epigram which has not recently been excelled either in form or matter. Compared with the quires of flimsiness which for the most part issue from the press, *The New Lucian* is reading of a very delightful sort to any one who has an interest in literature, and ought to be very profitable reading to all who have any interest in politics. On one point only have we to speak of Mr. Traill's work with positive reprobation. Many men may regret the Count of Chambord's refusal to take the field in 1873. But to represent the refusal as having been the effect of fear (and in his dialogue Mr. Traill not merely makes Egalité advance the charge—that is sufficiently in character—but Henri Cinq accept it, so that it must be taken as the author's view) is worthy neither of a student of history nor of a political philosopher, nor—we say it with regret—even of a chivalrous political partisan. This same dialogue is altogether so one-sided that we must suppose Mr. Traill to have been prejudiced to the point of forgetting his facts by the Count's notorious religiosity—a failing towards which neither the Old nor the New Lucian seems to have been entirely just. The world at large has judged and will judge better the last of the Bourbons, who, if he had less than the somewhat moderate share of brains which his family have possessed, had at least a moral record as stainless as his flag. Had Mr. Traill confined the slander to the lips of the man who skulked from Keppel's guns, it would have been fair dramatic game. But by making the interlocutor admit the appeal to his conscience, he has made himself art and part in an unworthy scandal. The dialogue is in more ways than one the weakest in the book, and if Mr. Traill drops it in a future edition he will do well. In others, as we have said, there are points suggesting difference, but only difference of an amicable kind.

THREE NOVELS.*

THE first novel of every writer of fiction is easily accounted for. It is written for gain or for fame; the author seeks credit in the world of letters, or hopes to make an income by producing something that will sell. But second and third novels require a more elaborate apology, when they require any apology at all. Many, if not most, of them are entirely without justification for their existence, because the first experiments have shown that neither gain nor fame is likely to reward perseverance in an ill-chosen career. This, however, is a stricture which can scarcely be applied, or only in a modified sense, to the three novels now under notice. Their authors have reached a certain degree of acceptance with the public, they are asked for at the libraries, one of them is a veteran in the art of fiction, whilst another is apparently bent on earning the same title with the shortest possible delay. All are probably warranted in producing fresh stories by the amiability of their critics and the reports of their publishers; but when a man or woman of letters has been fortunate to this extent, and can contemplate a new book as a fairly good speculation, other questions arise, and other hesitations suggest themselves, which not even the most successful novelist can afford to despise. We are entitled to demand a good reason for every work that is added to the vast accumulations of fiction. A novel which has no good reason for existence is an offence against a much-tried and long-suffering world; and an author who goes on writing from the mere momentum of former successes, without a special effort to give us what is new, true, and worthy, deserves less consideration than that which was accorded to his first attempt. Judged by this standard, it is to be feared that a large proportion of what are called the best novels of every publishing season ought to be condemned as worthless.

Mr. Crawford has had the great misfortune to be seized upon early in life by the more enthusiastic order of reviewers, who, having discovered in him transcendent qualities not previously suspected even by himself, did their best to check the gradual and painful development without which the best conceivable talent can never be matured into excellence. It is barely a year since *Mr. Isaacs* introduced its author to English readers as one capable of good and entertaining work, and now we have a fourth novel from Mr. Crawford's too industrious pen. As an almost necessary consequence, *To Leeward* shows that his faults have been exaggerated, whilst his virtues are less conspicuous; he has treated an unpleasant subject in an objectionable manner, and his style is both pretentious and slipshod. The story which he has thought it worth his while to tell in these two volumes is that of a cool and treacherous seduction, or, rather, of the cold-blooded connivance of a man and woman to deceive the husband of the latter without a shadow of excuse or probability. The heroine is depicted in the first chapters as a pure and refined English girl, a visitor in Rome, who has muddled her brains with "philosophy," but who does not exhibit anything like an immoral tendency. It is true that she is "full of a certain fierce courage and impatience of restraint, chafing under the moral flat-iron of a hopelessly proper father, whose mind is of the great levelling type, and his prejudices as mountains of stone in the midst, reared to Heaven like pyramids to impose a personal moral geography on the human landscape." Such a portentous flat-iron as this would be enough to account for anything whatever, in or out of the range of intelligible things. But Mr. Crawford does not prepare us, as an artist might easily have done, for the hideous picture which he means to draw. Leonora marries a young Italian nobleman, the soul of honour and courtesy, who is entirely devoted to her; yet immediately after their honeymoon she allows a comparative stranger to begin a course of flattery and flirtation which a couple of months suffice to ripen into a breach of her marriage vows. No doubt Mr. Crawford will say that such things are, and that he only professes to tell things as they are. But that is not the question; though, if it were, we should be inclined to answer that deliberate seduction is too vulgar and commonplace to be made the subject of an artistic work of fiction. All that it may contain of genuine romance, if any romance is compatible with deliberation on both sides, has been squeezed out of it long ago; and Mr. Crawford is surely not reduced to picking up the squeezed oranges of those who have gone before him. But our present concern is with his lack of art rather than with his lack of judgment. Having failed to prepare us beforehand for the woeful corruption of his heroine, and having dwelt on her crime with something like unctuous relish, it seems to occur to him that no one could suddenly become so very disgraceful as he has made Leonora, and he proceeds to deface his portrait, and to daub over the finer lines of his original picture. The effect is at times a little comical. Leonora has eloped with her lover—a vapid, middle-aged philanderer, who tries hard to talk epigrammatically, and makes "daring comments on the conduct of nations and individuals"—and they steal off together by night in the philanderer's boat. She has provided herself with a bag of hairpins, pocket-handkerchiefs, and Cologne water. After a refreshing sleep in her lover's arms, she wakes up and asks for her bag.

Leonora took a handkerchief and wet it from the bottle of Cologne water. Then she began to dab it on her face.

"I dreamed that you"—dab—"picked me up in your arms and"—dab, dab—"carried me down the stairs"—dab, dab, dab—"and just as you were putting me into the"—dab—"into the boat, you dropped me into the sea." A furious succession of dabs, then more Cologne water, and another handkerchief.

This may be amusing, but it is not art. It is brought in towards the end of the story in order to depreciate the character of a heroine whose evil actions have become incongruous with her previous description. In fact, the Leonora of Rome and the Leonora of Sorrento have extremely little in common. They are different types; and it looks very much as though Mr. Crawford had originally intended that his Marchesa should overcome the temptations of the philanderer, and had changed his mind in the course of the second volume.

Hasty production will account for some, though not for all, of the blemishes which abound in Mr. Crawford's story. What does he mean by "airy furniture"? How could one man "wring" another's "cowardly neck to death"? Is it possible for a woman to "fire off the shots of her brimming affection"? Why is Leonora's sister-in-law, an Italian married to a French comte, perpetually spoken of as "Donna Diana"? Why should a spy exulting in the discovery of a clandestine meeting between the lovers be compared to "some dark evil genius of a low order, waiting for Mr. Darwin to evolve him into the advanced condition of complete devildom"—unless it be that Mr. Darwin's name is ornamental, whether appropriate or not? What is the meaning of this?—

Who will tell us that love is less a real thing because it is evil instead of being good? Bah! Devils are quite as real as angels, as I have no doubt many of us will find in due time.

Or of this?—

Out of nothing, nothing can come. Out of confusion and vanity and pure selfishness . . . out of the shell of an imaginary self wrought fine and gilded . . . what can come that is good? or can anything come of them which is truly evil, seeing that, one with another, they are all but so many empty nothings, melted together and lost in the great void?

"You should not say those sort of things," Leonora tells her philanderer on one occasion; and Mr. Crawford's readers will be disposed to apply the same reproach to himself. Next to his scraps of vague philosophy, perhaps the most objectionable of "those sort of things" are the scraps of unnecessary French which Mr. Crawford's Italians are constantly exchanging. One would think that the Marchese and his sister would have preferred their native tongue, and we are told in so many words that Leonora liked Italian better than French. This is a comparative trifle; but it illustrates the slipshod manner in which the author has dashed off the fourth and worst of his novels.

Holme Lee is an author who has passed the stage when one might have looked to her for the justification of a new story, and she has not reached the melancholy second stage when it may be necessary, judging by other instances, to look for it again. *Loving and Serving* is one of the best examples of a style which fulfils most of the conditions that one would naturally impose on "homely" novels. It is warmed throughout with a glow of domestic felicity, charity, dutifulness, and repose. The heroine is a prepossessing young orphan, whose name, Mary Martha, suggests or is suggested by the title of her story. More of loving than of serving falls to her lot, and her vicissitudes are mainly steps from one degree of fortune and happiness to another. The tale, indeed, is written by an optimist for optimists, and there is scarcely enough of excitement in it to flutter the heart of the gentlest reader. No crime, no abiding enmity, no aching hearts are admitted into the paradise which Holme Lee creates and peoples. She knows the limits of her power too well to attempt anything beyond the simple drama of an uneventful life; and even in the story before us her hand begins to show its lack of cunning whenever her characters approach some loftier height of passion or heroism. The art required for work of this kind is not much; a moderate ambition enables the author to satisfy moderate expectations. But the absence of all pretence, and false glitter, and vague assumption of knowledge, is a legitimate claim to the gratitude of a generation overdone with all these things. The reader will be inclined to think of this story, as the writer says of one of her characters, "when a girl loves the best things, her foibles are likely to wither away and die in that purer light"; and to its unexciting and somewhat monotonous record the words applied to another character will not be inappropriate:—"She seemed lighter, gayer, better contented—but, Lord, when one is young, the mere sense of living and being innocent is enough for all that!"

After a novel which is, in its way, only too interesting, and a novel of which the interest is circumscribed within narrow bounds, the insatiate lover of fiction may turn with relief to the sprightly story of childhood which the author of *The Young Idea* commends particularly to the notice of "old boys." The publisher has prefixed to this volume a string of extracts from our contemporaries which certainly warrant the author of *Culmshire Folk* and *John Orlebar* in presenting himself once more, after a reasonable interval, as a delineator of human character. We have had of late years perhaps a little too much of the mischievous juvenile, but there will always be room for bright sketches of childhood, cleverly and genially drawn. The "young idea" in this story is the son of a London poulterer, "lent" for a Christmas holiday to a childless farmer and his wife, who have their hands

* *To Leeward*. By F. Marion Crawford. 2 vols. London: Chapman & Hall. 1884.

Loving and Serving. By Holme Lee. 3 vols. London: Smith, Elder, & Co. 1883.

The Young Idea: a Sketch for "Old Boys." By the Author of "Culmshire Folk," "John Orlebar," &c. 1 vol. London: Remington & Co. 1884.

full with him, to their great delight. His boundless curiosity and his sage comments on all that he sees and hears are sufficiently diverting, though the effect is somewhat marred by the author's unequal rendering of the language of his hero. The poulterer's boy appears to vary between the ages of four and eight; but this does not prevent the story from being racy and characteristic in many of its incidents.

MENTAL EVOLUTION IN ANIMALS.*

THERE is, without question, some enormous distinction between the psychology of man and that of the lower animals, and hereafter I shall have to consider at much length what that distinction is." So writes Mr. Romanes at the end of the chapter on "Reason" in his *Mental Evolution in Animals*. The remark proves, of course, that we are only to regard this very interesting volume as a step in a series, a chapter of what is to be "continued in our next." Mr. Romanes, as he remarks in his preface, had intended to "devote the present essay to mental evolution in man, as well as in the animals." But he found that his materials were too abundant for a single volume, and he wisely avoided producing one of those dropsical and swollen "bookseller's books" which make modern literature a weariness and require a solid scaffolding for their accommodation.

Mr. Romanes's subject is already quite sufficiently ample. Within the space of a review it is impossible to follow closely and minutely an argument which reposes on the general hypothesis of evolution, and which traces the increasing development of consciousness and mental faculty as exhibited in correspondence with increasing complexity of physical structure. Mr. Romanes has provided the student with an elaborate map or chart, or genealogical tree, displaying the territories or illustrating the pedigree of Mind. Without this tree, and without constant comparison between the tree and the text, it is practically impossible to do justice to Mr. Romanes's system. We shall endeavour, however, by aid of the sketch, to give a general notion of what Mr. Romanes believes; while the rest of this review must be devoted to a more popular topic—examples of instinct and reason among the animals. Mr. Romanes's mental tree, then, grows out of a soil of Excitability in the brain and nervous system. Two stout branches, or rather roots, "discrimination" and "conductivity," meet in a straight stem, of which the lower part is named "neurility," and soars into "reflex action" and "volition." This stem, with all its branches, is crossed by straight lines, which lead the eye to the organisms, or animals, that are on a level with this or that stage of mental development. For example, on a level with the basis or roots of all, excitability, are protoplasmic movements. On a level with "neurility" are "unknown animals, perhaps extinct"—a very interesting theme to the speculative mind; there is so much room for pleasing conjecture in the conception of animals which probably do not exist, and certainly are not known. Immediately above "neurility," the stem of potential mind sends out a short sturdy bough, "sensation." On a level with "sensation," in an ascending scale, are coelenterata, echinodermata, and mollusca, all of which are conscious. But from sensation spring two branches, which expand into a number of twigs. The first is "perception," and the animals which, in an ascending scale, possess perception are molluscs, insects and spiders, fish and frogs, higher crustacea, reptiles, birds, carnivora, monkeys and elephants, lastly, anthropoid apes and dogs. These creatures gradually swarm up to the branches of the mental tree; so that insects and spiders have a share of imagination, the higher crustacea are not without reason, reptiles recognize persons, birds are capable of dreaming (a parrot is rightly reported to have talked in his sleep, and a canary was a martyr to nightmare), while monkeys and elephants understand the use of tools, and anthropoid apes and dogs represent creatures with "indefinite morality." While these are examples of the climbing processes of intellect, the opposite side of the chart illustrates the evolution of the emotions. These ascend gradually, from surprise and fear in very simple and lowly organisms, to shame, remorse, deceitfulness, and a sense of the ludicrous in the highest animals. On what may be called the political side, the tree throws out the branch of "the preservation of species," which again produces a "social" branch, and above the line where apes and dogs are found "in airy climb," becomes "partly human, human, savage, civilized." Corresponding to these topmost twigs are the faculties which man possesses and the beasts lack, "Reflection" and "Self-conscious Thought."

The skeleton of an arrangement or argument thus provided is clothed, as it were, and animated by the early chapters on "Nerve-tissue," the physical basis of Mind, the working of nervous centres, and so forth. Consciousness, sensation, perception, are then examined, and we reach the chapter on Imagination, with its curious examples of dreaming in birds and of delusions in animals. Here the popular interest in the book may be said to begin; after this anecdotes are frequent. Here we may pause for a moment to say Happy physical science! Mr. Romanes is allowed to bring evidence from all quarters, and from observers of every age, as to the manners and habits of birds, beasts, and fishes that swim in the sea. But when the anthropologist brings the same sort of evidence to illustrate the manners and habits of men, then out-

laughs the stern "scholar," and says, "Arrest me that agency," as in *Martin Chuzzlewit*. According to the "scholar," no evidence about the manners of men in different stages of civilization is admissible unless it is the evidence of trained philologists and etymologists. The student of natural history knows no such limitations, and may quote the "journals and books of travel" so much disdained by the scholar.

Mr. Romanes, illustrating "imagination" in the animals, quotes various cases of delusion in beasts. Mad dogs have "the horrors," and appear to suffer from hallucinations like those of *delirium tremens*. An instance is given of a perfectly sane Scotch terrier, whose hair stood up on end in dread of some visionary foe. The spirited proprietor of this animal does not appear to have belonged to the Psychological Society, or he would merely have observed, about the terrier, "She sees a ghost I cannot see." The toothless mastiff bitch of Sir Leoline (the baron rich) is a case in point. When she gave sixteen howls, not over loud, "some say she saw my lady's shroud." It is rather curious that, when dealing with the delusion of animals, Mr. Romanes did not allude to the widespread belief that dogs can see supernatural visions sometimes denied to men. In Homer the dogs see Athene when her presence is hidden from Telemachus, and, instead of barking, they sneak away with low whines. We happen to have met lately with a case of a superstitious dog, a very beautiful collie. This animal was sleeping in the room of his mistress, in a house popularly held to be haunted. A tremendous noise, as of a dozen *Poltergeists* bear-fighting, broke out in the room beneath that in which the dog was lying. He displayed the most abject terror, and next day refused to enter the room whence the clamour had arisen. The cause of the riot was never discovered, but its cause is neither here nor there. The fact remains that the noise filled the dog with a superstitious dread from which it took him some time to recover. The belief in the howling of dogs before a death occurs in a non-Aryan race in India, where it is explained by a curious myth about the creation of man. From delusions in dogs Mr. Romanes passes, by a natural transition, to the germs of religion in animals. Mr. Herbert Spencer says, in a curiously dubious way, "I believe M. Comte expressed the opinion that fetichistic conceptions are formed by the higher animals." Surely it is not so difficult to find out for certain whether or not Comte expressed this opinion. The topic is confused by the irritating abundance of false senses which are given to the word fetich. Originally Portuguese, fetich means no more than a charm, amulet, or other object to which a magical quality is attached. Stones, feathers, birds' claws, shells, and bits of trash in general, are hoarded by the fetichistic savage, just as French gamblers keep their *cochons d'or* and their bit of rope wherewith a man has been hanged, and (of late) their little golden owls. This fetichism, pure and simple, is not practised by the animals. Comte probably meant that animals, like savages, invest many inanimate objects with a fancied life. On this topic a very curious and rather absurd book (*Myth and Science*) by M. Vignoli may be consulted. M. Vignoli derives the "personalism," "animism," or whatever we are to call it, of the savage from the instinctive animism of the lower creation. But Mr. Romanes's own experiments prove that beasts do not seriously fancy inanimate things to be endowed with life, unless the objects are made to behave in such a manner that the hypothesis of their animation is forced upon the four-footed observer. Before leaving the religion of animals, may we refer Mr. Romanes to a curious old work which proves that animals are orthodox Christians? The English translation, from the Lille edition of 1672, is called "The School of the Eucharist. Established upon the Miraculous Respects and Acknowledgements, which *Beasts, Birds, and Insects* upon several occasions have rendered," &c. Then we read, "A Spider avenges an affront done to the H. Sacrament." "Hinds come to Mass on a H. Martyr's day, and make an Offering of a young Cheverel." "Ducks are present at Mass on S. Nicholas Day." The author of this singular compilation from a vast variety of sources was F. Toussaint Bridoul, of the Society of Jesus.

Mr. Romanes for his chapters on Instinct has been fortunate enough to use Mr. Darwin's notes, and an old essay of Mr. Darwin's, hitherto unpublished, is printed at the end of the volume. Mr. Romanes's definition of Instinct may be quoted from his previous work, *Animal Intelligence*:—

Instinct is reflex action into which there is imported the element of consciousness. The term is therefore a generic one, comprising all those faculties of mind which are concerned in conscious and adaptive action, antecedent to individual experience, without necessary knowledge of the relation between means employed and ends attained, but similarly performed under similar and frequently recurring circumstances by all the individuals of the same species.

Mr. Romanes examines perfect and imperfect instincts. The former sort exactly meets the circumstances in the life of an animal which it exists to meet; the latter induces lemmings to venture on maritime enterprise which they are wholly unfitted to accomplish successfully. In imperfect instincts the animals make errors. The flesh fly deposits its eggs on the flowers of the carrion plant. Honey-seeking insects attempt to derive nutriment from the gaudy salmon-flies on Professor Moseley's bat. Swallows have often been caught with the trout-fly when the angler was making his cast. Trout (occasionally) have also paid this tribute to an imperfect instinct. But in these cases they may be excused, for false flies are offered to them, and the same with intent to deceive. Bees attempt to suck honey from the blossoms of wall-

* *Mental Evolution in Animals*. By George John Romanes, M.A., LL.D., F.R.S. With a Posthumous Essay on Instinct by Charles Darwin. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, & Co. 1883.

papers; we are sure they would not make the experiment on any flowers of Mr. Morris's patterns. A change of instinct in animals may be caused, and "Aristotle tells us of a cock that performed all the duties of a hen." Mr. Gilbert tells us of an "accomplished hen" that performed the crowing duties expected of a cock. But the oddest of all perversions of instinct is quoted (apparently as an example of erotomania) by Mr. Romanes from an anonymous lady:—

A white fantail pigeon lived with his family in a pigeon-house in our stable-yard. He and his wife had been brought originally from Sussex, and had lived, respected and admired, to see their children of the third generation, when he suddenly became the victim of the infatuation I am about to describe. . . .

No eccentricity whatever was remarked in his conduct until one day I chanced to pick up somewhere in the garden a ginger-beer bottle of the ordinary brown stone description. I flung it into the yard, where it fell immediately below the pigeon-house. That instant down flew pater-familias, and to my no small astonishment commenced a series of genuflections, evidently doing homage to the bottle. He strutted round and round it, bowing and scraping and cooing and performing the most ludicrous antics I ever beheld on the part of an enamoured pigeon. . . . Nor did he cease these performances until we removed the bottle; and, which proved that this singular aberration of instinct had become a fixed delusion, whenever the bottle was thrown or placed in the yard—no matter whether it lay horizontally or was placed upright—the same ridiculous scene was enacted; at that moment the pigeon came flying down with quite as great alacrity as when his peas were thrown out for his dinner, to continue his antics as long as the bottle remained there. Sometimes this would go on for hours, the other members of his family treating his movements with the most contemptuous indifference, and taking no notice whatever of the bottle. At last it became the regular amusement with which we entertained our visitors to see this erratic pigeon making love to the interesting object of his affections, and it was an entertainment which never failed, throughout that summer at least. Before next summer came round he was no more.

This pigeon really behaved more or less like a feticist, and many a savage would worship a stone bottle from which the spirit had departed.

Mr. Romanes next elucidates the origin of instinct in "survival of the fittest," and in "the lapsing of intelligence." The animals which kept on doing useful things unintelligently survived. Again, useful actions originally done with intelligence become hereditary and automatic. It would be interesting to see how either origin accounts for the extraordinary dodge by which the mason wasps provide fresh food for their unborn offspring. On the point of the supposed inverse ratio of instinct and reason in man, and of intelligence and instinct in ants and bees, Mr. Romanes breaks a lance with Mr. Mivart, and unseats, we think, that champion of orthodoxy. Mr. Romanes concludes that the animals have their share of reason. Who can deny it to an ape which steadily persevered with a bunch of keys till he found the key that opened the door?

Mr. Romanes's book is remarkable for its clearness of method, its cogency of arguments, for abundance of interesting evidence, and for exactness and lucidity of definition. That the metaphysicians will find many points on which to combat him we need scarcely say. Interesting as his book is, we look forward with still greater interest to the promised sequel, over which we expect a metaphysical, theological, and general battle of Armageddon.

REGENERATION OF INDIA.*

IN one sense this little work may be termed an indigenous product. The author is a Mahratta Brahman. The book is printed at a native press, the *Dhyan Mittra*, which means "the friend of religious meditation." It can be bought in Bombay for the sum of eight annas or a shilling. And if the writer looks on his countrymen as the Dewan or Prime Minister of a little native State may be supposed to look on them, he has also imbibed English ideas through his experience as a Vakil or pleader, of the High Court of Bombay. A pleader, we may state, is a native advocate who is qualified to appear, act, and argue on behalf of his client on the civil and criminal sides of the High Court in its appellate jurisdiction. He can also go on special retainer to any of the subordinate courts in the interior. But he differs from a barrister in his inability to appear and address a judge or jury of the High Court in its original jurisdiction, whether civil or criminal. How long this "anomaly" will be tolerated by some enlightened member of Council, or how soon some impassioned friend of humanity will ask whether these degrading class distinctions are to be maintained, we cannot say. But there is nothing to prevent any native gentleman, Parsi, Mahratta, or Bengali, from coming to England and passing examinations at Lincoln's Inn or the Temple. Indeed, more young natives now study in England for the Bar than compete for the Civil Service. And we must do the author the justice to say that, without crossing the dark water, he has become a proficient in English, and if his style is occasionally ambitious and high-flown, we happily miss that lofty air of patronage and condescension with which orators and writers from the other side of India are wont to lecture Englishmen and Englishwomen on their imperfect or incipient civilization.

Those who wish to gain a clear idea of the articles of faith of a Hindu Theist will find them stated in an appendix of five pages. The Theist is at war with Pantheism, idolatry, and ascetic prac-

tices, thus getting rid at once of Shiva and Kali, with all their synonyms, and all the tribes of Gosains, Faquirs, and devotees. He has faith in man's moral nature as originally constituted, and believes it capable of spiritual intercourse with the Divine Being as well as of eternal happiness. The certainty of punishment for evil done and the necessity of repentance, are distinctly recognized. Surrender of selfish passions to the Divine will is one of the highest duties; and that will, acting on human reason, produces wisdom; on the conscience, virtue; and on the affections that kind of love which seeks the good of others. Caste is ignored or pronounced reprehensible or impious. In short, though this confession of faith denies original sin, disbelieves in any one revealed book, whether the Shastra, the Bible, or the Koran, looks on all religion as progressive, and on the world itself as capable of apparently indefinite perfection, there is little that the rigid moralist would disapprove, and much that the Indian statesman might welcome as immeasurably superior to the worship of Durga and the restrictions of caste. But the purpose of the author is not merely to put Theism in a succinct form, or to show that man's regeneration may be accomplished by prayer and intercourse with the Divine Being. He wishes to do something towards the regeneration of India, and here we descend from what the first Lord Ellenborough called the "high sentimental latitudes" to the low ground of practical life. To some of the recommendations any Anglo-Indian will assent. That native houses should be pure; that the Hindu woman should play the part, not of a serf or a chattel, but of a matron and a wife; that natives of position, independence, and high culture should hand down the torch of education to the lower social strata, and should set themselves steadily to counteract the evils of Pantheism and idolatry; is of course all we could desire. It is when we come to the part to be played by Government in regenerating his countrymen that the exhortations of the writer will provoke criticism and discussion amongst the various Anglo-Indian schools of reform. On religious instruction in colleges this Mahratta Brahman evinces a tolerant spirit which might shock advanced members on any English School Board. He would have no doctrine or dogma inculcated by the teacher. But he would allow him to teach natural religion and morality, and he would like to hear scholars singing hymns composed by the Theists of India in the vernacular languages to the praise and glory of God. We fear this gentleman under-estimates the difficulty of reducing natural religion to a precise form of words acceptable to all parties, as well as the danger of rousing intolerance and sectarianism under the guise of religion. We can understand an allotment of an hour to the Bible in the case of Christian scholars, and of the Koran in that of Mahomedans. But who is to make the right selection out of the Hindu Shastras? How are the claims of a Vedic hymn to be reconciled with those of a passage from the Sankhya Sāra or the Bhagavat Purana? Who can be certain that an elegant translation of Pope's "Universal Prayer," or the morning hymn of our first parents in Milton, would disarm hostility? Or how is the most accomplished member of Mr. Hunter's Commission on Education to compose "Family Prayers," as suggested, which will not offend the missionary, the Brahman, or the Sudra? For the mode in which elementary education and our duty to the masses are to be reconciled with the maintenance of English schools and colleges, we must wait for the Report of Mr. Hunter and his colleagues; but meanwhile it is satisfactory to find that the author upholds fees and scholarships, and even thinks that the rulers of native States might contribute to the educational funds by founding technical schools or agricultural colleges, and sending promising young men to the "seminaries of Western learning." But whether this vague expression means that they are to take degrees at the Bombay University, or are to go to England, we shall not undertake to say. When we come to the well-worn topic of the development of natural resources, the author expatiates on the rich mines, the fertile soil, the large forests, and the splendid navigable rivers of India. Now we have heard a good deal of this sort of thing before, and for the last quarter of a century English capital and industry have been attracted to India as they certainly were not before the Mutiny. The coal industry has flourished, sunk, and is reviving. Portions of jungle, small in comparison of what remains to be cleared, have been turned into tea-gardens and dotted with bungalows. Cotton has spread, and jute is now a large export. Factories and mills at the Presidencies actually need the restraining and guiding hand of the Legislature. But somehow there are certain projects which English capitalists cannot and ought not to touch, and others which they only handle to burn their fingers. In the power of any English Chamber of Agriculture materially to improve the native methods of cultivation, to change the ryots' ploughs, or to supplant by machinery the ox that treads out the corn, we have a complete disbelief. The State may do something by the establishment of a model farm, and by importations of new seeds and varieties of produce. But minerals have been snares to Companies, and for the last thirty years we are constantly hearing of iron that does not "smelt"; of stone quarries that have to be abandoned; or of some gold Company that must be wound up. When we are reminded that there is British capital which is lying idle or seeking good investment, we are tempted to remark that British capital can be left to find out its best investment, and that those who supplant lumbering country boats by flats and steamers, reclaim the jungle, and people the waste, are not, after all, so very illogical when they insist on certain judicial safeguards and privileges in a country where there are other enemies besides the white-ant and

* *Regeneration of India*. By Gopionath Sadashivji Hāte, Dewan to the State of Palitana, Kathiawar; Pleader, Bombay High Court. Bombay: Printed at the Dhyan Mittra Press by N. W. Ghumre. 1883.

the mosquito, the autumnal fever and the deadly snake. In his proposal to "set free" "a considerable portion of the Government money now absorbed in railways, harbours, and canals," and to devote the same to agricultural banks, well-irrigation, and the diminution of the National Debt, he is chimerical and vague. It is only necessary to remark that a very large portion of the railway system has been constructed by private capital, under a guarantee of interest from the State; that digging wells, though often aided by advances from the Treasury, is an operation essentially part of the business of a Talukdar, or a tenant-proprietor, or a village community; and that a beginning has been made in the establishment of agricultural banks. And when it is contended that the chiefs and native merchants of India ought to have the first option of buying any bank, railway, or canal hitherto constructed and supervised by Government, the simple answer is that the Rajas, Nawabs, and Mahajans have only to combine at this moment, raise the capital, and make the offer. There is no hindrance, legislative or executive, to the formation of any Company or Society in India for the purpose of carrying out any philanthropic, commercial, or social project whatever.

We prefer our reformer when he lectures his countrymen about premature marriages, polygamy, and the long dreary widowhood to which, in spite of the beneficent Acts of the Legislature, a little girl who marries an octogenarian Brahman is inevitably condemned. The tone of the author is here manifestly so earnest that he rises far above the level of the professional spouter who talks and does nothing. But it is for the educated natives themselves to alter the age of marriage and to introduce light and culture into the Zenana, if they cannot entirely break down its partitions. Government is here powerless.

The value of this kind of *brochure* is obviously, not that it shows a short cut to reform, or propounds capital schemes which it would never have occurred to the Financial or the Legal member of the Viceroy's Council to suggest, but that it shows English education to be teaching natives to think for themselves. Perhaps the improvement has not been as rapid as Macaulay anticipated when he pointed out the absurdity of paying natives to learn their own classical languages of Sanskrit or Arabic. But it is gratifying to see a native lawyer giving no encouragement to what Macaulay denounced as "absurd history, absurd metaphysics, absurd physics, absurd theology"; admitting the solid advantages conferred on India by foreign rule, and not always calling on Commissioners and magistrates or to the Hindu Jupiter to help the ancestral bullock cart out of the mud in which it has long stuck. The Regeneration of India—it is characteristic of native style that the article is omitted in the title—may not come for all this gentleman's calling, but there is more subject for thought and congratulation in his eighty pages than in many other bulky and more portentous publications.

THREE NOVELS.*

MRS. OLIPHANT is a novelist for whom we have so much respect that we hope she will forgive our saying that she writes too much to be always very readable. She can hardly draw breath between her books, and she seems often to dash into the regulation three volumes, trusting to the fates and good fortune for a sufficiency of satisfactory matter. We admire the facility with which she can spin gossamer web out of slight and flimsy materials; but at the same time we not unfrequently have cause to regret it. Her *Hester* is a case in point. The story would have made a capital novelette; but we are bound to say that it is a rather wearisome novel. It is a story of trade, with commonplace incidents, with characters that have little novelty or originality; but with one or two very strong situations. *Hester* herself is the most striking figure in the book, and she would have stood out still more effectively had the interest been concentrated around her. We said that the main idea of the novel is commonplace. We have the familiar private bank which is to be involved in financial troubles, and may probably come to signal grief. "Vernon's" is represented, with some pardonable exaggeration, as the leading house in the home counties, and second only to the Bank of England in local consideration. Nevertheless, "Vernon's" has no branches; and its business, for artistic and dramatic purposes, is conducted entirely in the second-rate town of Redborough. The dominating and directing spirit is a certain Miss Catherine Vernon, who came to the rescue of the family concern in a critical moment. Since then Miss Catherine had kept the reins in her hands till she confided them to a couple of nephews whom she adopted as acting partners. At first sight she seems to be more vigorously drawn than she really is. She is one of those strong-minded women whom we ought to know so well by this time. She is quick and shrewd; she loves to domineer and to do kindnesses; she takes a world that has sadly disappointed her as she has found it, and scarcely looks for gratitude. Yet she has a softer side to her nature, which makes her generously ready to be imposed upon, for she never gives her confidence by halves. But not being in the habit of being crossed, she can be petty in her prejudices and resentments. She delights in being the Lady Bountiful of the gentility of Redborough, and she

subsidizes half of her poor relations, establishing them by whole families in something like aristocratic almshouses—a state of things which introduces us to a society of sycophants; for she has succeeded in surrounding herself with knaves and fools and backbiting toadies. For once Mrs. Oliphant is disagreeably cynical in the pictures she presents of the petty meannesses of humanity. Yet she may urge that she takes these unpleasant views of human nature in order to point a moral and adorn her tale. For the heroine is brought in by way of contrast, and nobody can call *Hester* a time-server. The girl is introduced to us with a happy touch, which shows her a restless, short-frooked maiden of fourteen, rushing about the curious old house which is to become her home, "with eyes like two notes of interrogation, brilliant, flaming, inquiring into everything." On the very first occasion of their meeting she has the misfortune to excite the inveterate antipathy of Mrs. Catherine, in circumstances that should rather have propitiated that lady. *Hester* stands guardian in the gateway over her sleeping mother, and repulses Miss Catherine from the comfortable house which they owe to the lady's liberality. In developing the story of their mutual relations, from a state of armed aggressiveness to a perfect reconciliation, Mrs. Oliphant has shown much of her accustomed skill. *Hester* has always been honest, independent, and frankly outspoken; she has more fire and spirit than softness in her disposition; but of course, being clever and handsome, she is to be the victim of love in the end. She has been drawn into something like a sincere attachment to the favourite nephew of Miss Catherine. The elderly lady has, implicitly trusted the young man, who, having been a heartless hypocrite all along, has turned out an actual criminal. There is something touching in the affectionate readiness of the stern and suspicious Miss Catherine to be gulled. She loves her adopted son more and more, though she cannot help watching him with growing uneasiness. She fears to be disillusioned and shrinks from it; but the shock she has dreaded comes at last in the shape of a scandal that is conclusive as to his character. He has brought her cherished bank to the verge of ruin, and fled from the consequences of his criminal conduct. Then comes one of the most striking of those scenes to which we have alluded, where *Hester* and Miss Catherine are brought into the closest contact. Slowly the prepossessions of the older woman yield, as she acknowledges that the girl she disliked is worthy of her warmest affection. And when they come to explanations, the unappreciated *Hester* confesses, very suggestively, that she had always both loved and hated Miss Catherine. So far, that supplies the key to a character which is chiefly made up of contradictions. As to the dénouement of the novel, it strikes us as unsatisfactory in the extreme; and we imagine that Mrs. Oliphant, being weary of the work she had prolonged, brought it abruptly to an end at the last in a burst of natural impatience.

We know not how it is, but we find that North-country novels, from those of the Brontës and Mrs. Gaskell downwards, are generally fresh and invigorating. Possibly the reason may partly be that the writers must be exceptionally well acquainted with what they describe, otherwise they dare not venture on the difficulties of the Northern dialects. But in *Robert Reid* there is decidedly something more than mere familiar acquaintance with people and things. The author holds her characters well in hand throughout, and has the knack of going straight to her points. She has the gift, too, of conceiving dramatic circumstances and contrasts which give so hopeful a promise of exciting scenes that interest is awakened from the first. We may add that the promise is fairly redeemed; but the mere pleasures of anticipation in themselves are much. The dramatic contrasts begin in the very first pages of the opening chapter; and, as we might have expected from a title so blunt as *Robert Reid*, there is very little beating about the bush. Mr. Robert Reid is seen walking up the ill-kept approach which leads to a stately but dilapidated country mansion. Within doors he presents himself to a couple of pretty nieces, who have been left orphans by the death of a disreputable parent. The elder daughter of the dead baronet is beggared, the second happens to have a moderate fortune; but both are in want of a guardian and a home. They give Robert Reid a doubtful welcome. It is true he is their mother's brother; but he has made himself, and raised himself from being a small shopkeeper to the position of a wealthy cotton-spinner. But Robert is one of nature's genuine gentlemen, as the elder of his nieces is quick to discover. As for the second girl, we see at once that she is selfish and volatile, and predestined to trouble. Their new life under the roof of the rich manufacturer's in the Northern town is very cleverly drawn. It is enlivened besides by sketches of characters which are eccentric, perhaps even exaggerated, but by no means incredible. In fact, we may describe the novel as made up of melodramatic comedies and tragedies in the routine of every-day life. Thus the girls, coming home through their uncle's beautiful grounds, see an old man sitting on a garden-bench. They take him very naturally for an intrusive beggar; but, forgiving his freedoms in consideration of his years, the younger Miss Wynter presents him with a sixpence. He chuckles, introduces himself, but insists upon pocketing the coin. In reality, the venerable man is Mr. Reid's father and a notorious miser; and although his morals as well as his manners leave much to desire, and shock his daughter's sense of propriety, he sits down to the well-spread dinner-table with the Baronet's long-descended daughters. Old Mr. Slater dies, worth nearly one hundred thousand pounds, and never has he shown his eccentricities more decidedly than in the will, which scatters a little shower of bombshells among the company assembled to listen to

* *Hester: a Story of Contemporary Life.* By Mrs. Oliphant. London: Macmillan & Co. 1883.

Robert Reid. By Alice O'Hanlon. Author of "A Costly Heritage" &c. London: Tinsley, 1883.

Winifred Power. London: Bentley & Sons. 1883.

it. While the venerable gentleman in his life and death is put forward as a type of rather grim comedy, there is much tragedy in the fate of his favourite grandson, who involves the younger Miss Wynter in his shameful crimes and their retribution. That ingenious young man, "beautiful as the Sun-god," runs the gauntlet of a series of hairbreadth escapes from being arraigned at the bars of criminal tribunals for offences ranging from petty larceny to murder. He incidentally pushes a companion into the clutches of the revolving mill machinery; and his victim, though saved at the moment, ultimately dies of the shock. And yet each offence, with the combination of accidents that spare him its consequences, is credible enough in itself, and sometimes even probable. Old Slater and young Mr. Clifford Lang supply much of the fun, with most of the sensation. But we should give a very unfair impression of *Robert Reid* if we said nothing of the many virtuous characters. Robert himself is an admirable representative of the best class of self-made business men whose sympathies with the poor make them practical philanthropists; his warm-hearted little wife, who was always in the humble dwellings of the mill-hands, is in all respects the opposite of her miserly father; and, by way of make-weight to the base and unscrupulous Clifford Lang, we have a doctor who is the heroic embodiment of simple and straightforward manhood.

We praised the author of *Robert Reid* for going straight to her points; she simplifies the plot and concentrates the action. We are at once predisposed in favour of a novel of the kind, because it saves us all unnecessary trouble. We are in the full swing of the story at once; we may go on with it if we like it, or we may leave it alone. *Winifred Power*, on the other hand, is one of the books which repel by pretensions or assumptions which may perhaps be unconscious. But the anonymous writer seems to take it for granted that we are ready to give any amount of thought to his lucubrations. He exacts our closest attention, and lays an unconscionable strain on the memory. *Winifred Power* begins with a prologue, in which we are presented to a brother and sister with a poor relative and protégée, to whom they behave abominably. Twenty-five years are supposed to elapse, when we meet Miss Winifred, who is their niece, as a marriageable young woman. The brother and sister have been married themselves once or twice, and many other marriages have been made in the family in the meantime. Husbands have died; widows have sought consolation in second nuptials; and all these good people have been increasing and multiplying. Consequently the ramifications of their intricate relationships are become endless; and all these ramifications we are expected to master if we are to follow the story with a fair understanding. So our readers may probably be curious to know whether we consider the game to be worth the candle; and we are afraid we must answer the question in the negative. Winifred is a pretty girl and a sweet girl, and that is nearly all we can say in her favour. She is united ultimately to an honest and unattractive man; nor need any one expect much sentiment in their love-making, as they are cousins who are kept a good deal apart and very generally have the English Channel between them; while almost all the other people are contradictory incarnations of vices, frailties, and follies, except one worthy but weak old woman who has gone mad under the aggravation of a terrible wrong. The most prominent among the men is a solemn impostor, whose smooth hypocrisy is singularly nauseous; the most entertaining character is a cynical scamp, who never troubles himself to be hypocritical or to carry a mask unless it chances to serve some immediate purpose. And, though we are very indifferent as to what may happen to any one of them, we are rather sorry that some do not get their deserts.

SOME LEGAL LITERATURE.*

IT is recorded that the present Lord Chief Justice once said of an eminent person, a crisis in whose career had given him admirers an opportunity for lavish, though not unmerited, eulogy, "I think — has been praised enough." In reading Mr. Peter's preface to his *Analysis and Digest of the Decisions of Sir George*

* *Analysis and Digest of the Decisions of Sir George Jessel, late Master of the Rolls*. By Apaley Petre Peter, Solicitor, Law Society Prizeman. London: Stevens & Sons. 1883.

The New Law of Bankruptcy. By A. B. Benice-Jones, M.A., of the Inner Temple, Barrister-at-Law. London: Griffith & Farran. 1883.

The Bankruptcy Act—1883. By George G. Gray, LL.D. (Lond.), of the Middle Temple, Barrister-at-Law. London: Stevens & Sons. 1883.

The Agricultural Holdings (England) Act, 1883. By W. Russell Griffiths, LL.B., of the Midland Circuit. London: Stevens & Sons. 1883.

The Patents, Designs, and Trade Marks Act, 1883. By James Johnson, of the Middle Temple, Barrister-at-Law, and J. Henry Johnson, Assoc. Inst. C.E., Solicitor and Patent Agent, Lincoln's Inn Fields, and Glasgow. London: Longmans & Co. 1883.

An Analytical Index and Digest of the Supreme Court of Judicature Acts and Rules. By Frank R. Parker, Solicitor. London: Clowes & Sons. 1883.

A Concise Treatise on the Practice and Procedure in Chancery Actions under the Rules of the Supreme Court, 1883. By Sidney Peel, of the Middle Temple, Esq., Barrister-at-Law. Third Edition. London: Stevens & Sons. 1883.

The Practice in Winding-up Companies, with Forms for use in Winding-up, and Precedents in Bills of Costs. By Alfred Emden, of the Inner Temple, Esq., Barrister-at-Law. London: Clowes & Sons. 1883.

The Solicitor's Diary, Almanac, and Legal Directory, 1884. London: Waterlow & Sons.

Jessel we feel tempted to exclaim that the late Master of the Rolls has been praised enough. We do not say too much, but enough. Mr. Peter being (quite properly) of opinion that the act of publishing this book is one for which excuses ought, if possible, to be made, excuses it, firstly, by enumerating nine transcendent merits in Sir George Jessel which render him a peculiarly fit subject for the analysis and digestion of Mr. Peter. Secondly, by quoting the testimony of four distinguished lawyers, and generally of "the writer of any modern legal treatise," to Sir George's unquestioned judicial eminence. Having thus excused the production of his book, Mr. Peter apologizes for its imperfections. "The writer has had to prepare the work amidst his other professional duties; entirely unaided, even in the revising; in a remote part of the country, and with only his own law library." He modestly adds, "Attention to the Addenda, &c., will be desirable," and in this he is quite right. There are twenty-five Addenda, &c., or rather over five per cent. of the number of pages in the book, and there might have been more with advantage. We propose to give our reasons for thinking that Mr. Peter's preface does not err on the side of false modesty.

We are somewhat at a loss to decide whether the book is intended as a manual for the use of practitioners, or as a treatise for the edification of students, or simply as a literary monument to the memory of the great judge whose name it bears. "Analysis and Digest" seems to indicate practical usefulness; but this is neither an analysis nor a digest. If it were an analysis, the decisions would be analysed—that is, the principles from which they were deduced, and the rules which they established, would be pointed out, and some estimate of their effects or value would be suggested. If it were a digest, some kind of arrangement would be attempted, cognate matters would be collated, and the body of law owing its existence to Sir George Jessel would be presented in a shape more or less convenient for purposes of reference or instruction. Here there is nothing of the sort. Mr. Peter has adopted the straightforward method of going steadily through his *Law Journal Reports* with his scissors, paste, and pen, stopping whenever he saw "Jessel M.R." at the head of a reported judgment, and transferring to his own pages either the marginal note or a bit of it, except when, as has pretty often been the case, he has seen fit to paraphrase it in his own very much less satisfactory language. The unimportant judgments are recorded in a manner of which we shall presently give a specimen or two; the important ones have in a few cases as much as two pages of loosely written matter allotted to them. As the notices of a number of cases which may be roughly estimated at about 750 have to be got into 497 pages, one could hardly expect more. It is obvious that for all purposes of use in practice the book contains nothing which cannot be found much more readily, and we may add, much better stated, in the ordinary digests of reports, arranged according to subject-matter, and properly indexed. The practising lawyer may therefore rest assured that Mr. Peter's book will be of little use to him, and we have next to consider the matter from the point of view of the student. With all possible respect to the late Master of the Rolls, it can hardly be contended that his judgments were so directly inspired as to form a class quite by themselves, of greater authority than those of any other judges. Setting this aside, however, Mr. Peter's record is so destitute of anything in the nature of commentary or exposition of legal principles that the only use to which the laborious student could put it would be to learn it by heart; and, while he was about it, he would do much better to go straight to Mr. Peter's sources, and learn the marginal notes in the *Law Journal Reports*. By the exhaustive process it seems to follow that the book is merely a testimony, or monument, to its hero's greatness, and in that light we will attempt to estimate its value.

About three-quarters of the cases recorded are so trivial in themselves, or mentioned in so succinct a manner, as not to convey to the reader the smallest trace of Sir George Jessel's personality, if indeed they still contain any of his words. Here, for instance, are two, which we give in full, just as Mr. Peter points them:—

BROWN v. RYE.

[43 L. J. R. Ch. 228; L. R. 17 Eq. 343.]

A plaintiff suing in Chancery (or Chancery Division) for a sum within the County Court limit of jurisdiction in equity, will have his full costs as allowed in such Chancery Division. [This was also decided in *Richards v. Wicks*, Register of Judgments "(1868) R. 123;" in *Grandin v. Haines* L. R. Weekly Notes, 1873, p. 12; and before Lords Justices, Weekly Notes, 1873, p. 92.

STEWART v. NURSE.

[43 L. J. R. Ch. 384.]

In order to ascertain whether the costs of an administration suit are to be taxed on the higher or lower scale, the value of the estate at the time of the testator's death is the test.

These facts are useful to know at appropriate times and places, but the fact that Mr. Peter has abridged in these words the very brief notes which the *Law Journal* reporter wrote for purposes of indexing and reference at the head of his reports confers no fresh lustre on the name of Jessel. Triviality is not the only fault we have to find with these inelegant extracts; they are also obscure. To how many lawyers, unacquainted with the case of *Hoskins v. Holland*, will the following record, which is all that Mr. Peter thinks it worth while to print on the subject, convey any meaning whatever?

The fact that a person is only an assignee in equity of a legal demand is no ground for saying that the forum should be a Court of Equity [or now the Chancery Division].

Yet, upon reading in the Reports the marginal note of which the above is a clumsy abbreviation, we find that it is not only intelligible, but moderately clear. Another point, which seems to establish the literary-monument view of the book, is that three or four decisions are given which are stated to have been reversed on appeal. In one instance the author states the reversal to have "only been by L. J. James and Cotton"; but he is not justly open to the same reproach as that Sir Ingoldsby Bray who "said he was ONLY (!!!) a barefooted friar"; for it turns out that the word is meant to refer to the dissent of Lord Justice Lush. In another instance (*Fowkes v. Pascoe*, p. 57) Mr. Peter manages to leave the reader in doubt whether the judgment of which he gives the substance (or professes to give it) is the judgment which was reversed, or, as in fact it is, the judgment reversing it. Occasional excursions are made into the perilous paths of the *oratio directa*; but, as the author disdains the aid of inverted commas or other tokens of what he is doing, confusion of persons sometimes ensues. We abstain from specifying a grave fault in the Table of Cases only because we wish to save Mr. Peter the trouble of improving what no one is likely ever to use; but we will make him a present of a suggestion. If, when he publishes another edition, he omits all the letterpress except the preface, the names of the cases, and the references to the reports, he will save a good deal of expense in printing, and the monument to the Master of the Rolls will occupy just as much space on the shelf. The preface, too, can hardly keep its opening sentence:—"No eulogy which has been assigned to the late Sir George Jessel is undeserved." This was probably true when it was written; but, if the publication of this work is such a eulogy, we will never believe that Sir George Jessel did anything to deserve it.

The unusual legislative fertility, in and out of Parliament, of the present year, supplies us with a little heap of new text-books, of all shapes, sizes, and colours. Four of these expound statutes of great importance passed during the recent Session—two treating of the Bankruptcy Act, one of the Agricultural Holdings Act, and one of the Patents and Designs Act.

Mr. A. B. Bence-Jones prints the Bankruptcy Act, with an introduction, and occasional notes to many of its sections, in which he gives references to other enactments, and makes comments and suggestions, some of them founded on the debates in the Grand Committee, which ought to prove serviceable. He is not sanguine about the prospects of the Act, being of opinion that "State interference, even on the ground of purifying national morality, is not likely to be popular in England; and a law which is not popular is not likely to be long unrepealed." Elsewhere in the introduction he insists with some emphasis that the Act is the first great example of the new Radical method of State control over everything. He seems disposed to forget that the whole law of bankruptcy is a piece of State interference, and consists in taking away from creditors what would otherwise be their legal rights. His book is cheap, portable, and pretty. Mr. G. G. Gray's work on the same subject is of a more sternly legal aspect, and though he gives the history of the law and the principles of the present Act in his introduction, in the manner customary in such works, he does not venture further afield into political generalities than to pay Mr. Chamberlain a compliment upon the "able and conciliatory manner" in which he conducted the Bill through the Grand Committee, and to say that all depends upon the way in which the official receivers are appointed, and do their work. He swells his volume to a respectable size by adding to the text of the Act an Analysis, which appears to us to be ingeniously constructed, though it is nearly as long as the Act itself, and requires, or at least has, an "Explanation of Analysis," on a separate page. Both these books are necessarily incomplete, pending the publication of the New Bankruptcy Rules. Mr. Bence-Jones's book also contains the text of the Debtor's Act, 1869.

Mr. Russell Griffiths, after introducing his reader to his subject by a disquisition mostly about drainage, dung, and the other joys of the farm, gives a brief and well-arranged summary of the Agricultural Holdings Act, followed by the text of the Act itself, and a number of forms of notices, agreements, and the like, under the Act, which ought to prove useful. The book is very free from legal obscurity, and the distinction between those improvements which introduce greater fertility into the land, and are therefore compensated on the basis of value to the incoming tenant, and those which only stimulate existing fertility, and are therefore compensated on the basis of outlay, is well brought out.

Mr. James Johnson and Mr. J. Henry Johnson, the distinguished authors of *The Patentees' Manual*, a work whose excellence should commend their present publication to the public, have published an edition of the *Patents, Designs, and Trade Marks Act*, without waiting for the New Rules which the Board of Trade are empowered to make, and without which an account of the working of the law is necessarily incomplete. They promise another edition when the Rules are published. The alterations in the law are compendiously stated in the introduction, and as the rest of the book consists entirely of the text of the Act, its merits or otherwise are purely physical. On this head we have nothing but praise for it. It is most convenient in size and shape, and the printing is excellent.

The enactment of the New Rules of Procedure necessitates a second edition of Mr. Parker's ingenious arrangement of them in the form of an index. The index is preceded by three carefully constructed tables, showing respectively what are the sources from which the New Rules are taken, how each of the preceding set of Rules has been dealt with, and which of the present Rules are

wholly new. The whole make up a volume of considerable size, but one which ought to prove highly convenient in practice.

To the same event we owe a third edition of Mr. Sidney Peel's book on Chancery Practice. The procedure in actions in the Chancery Division is traced in forty-nine brief and sufficiently clear chapters, with copious marginal references, and a few of the forms of indorsement of writs, pleadings, and notices, appropriate to the Chancery Division, are reproduced from the New Rules. While Mr. Peel was about it he would have increased the utility of his book by giving more of these.

Mr. Emden's book on Winding-up Companies seems likely to be useful. The subject is a special one, and the bulk of the book shows how large a body of law has been produced by the modern development of this class of enterprise. The book contains a large collection of forms, and the text of the Companies' Acts. On the whole, it gives an exhaustive account of the law in a convenient and available form.

None but a most exigent solicitor would require an almanac to convey a vaster mass of heterogeneous information upon all subjects connected with his profession than is supplied by that published, now for the fortieth time, by Messrs. Waterlow. It is a good deal larger than the one annually furnished by Mr. Whittaker to the general public. It contains a calendar, a diary, a monthly cash account, and 608 pages of valuable lists and statistics, beginning with the Post Office Regulations, including a summary of the proceedings in Parliament during the last Session, a digest of the principal Acts passed, full lists of counsel and solicitors, and an infinity of other matter, and ending with the names of the bank at Ystalyfera, its manager, and London agents.

AMOS AND FERARD ON FIXTURES.*

THE index to this work is a curious monument to the industry of its editors. It would be difficult to name any article of ornament or use—from the collar of office of a Chief Justice to the gibbet on which a murderer is hanged, from the elaborate machine in a great manufactory to the water-tub by a cottage door—which does not find a place in it. It does not, indeed, allude to the swaddling clothes or marriage garments which a man has used in his life; but it gives every information about his shroud and coffin and the vault in which he is laid, and even about his ashes if he is cremated, which, it appears, belong to his widow and not to his heir. It is not, however, the fault of the editors that the index contains such a heterogeneous mass; and it is no small credit to them that they have carefully considered the law as applicable to all these different articles. Knowing what new editions of law books usually are, we expected to find all the old errors, obvious misprints, and wrong references retained with religious care, and the new matter introduced with a disregard of arrangement which would be quaint if it were not irritating. It was a pleasant surprise to find that the editors had taken as much pains with the original matter as they would have taken had they been the authors; and that the new matter had been introduced in its right place. We commend their example to some of their profession whose ideas of the duties of an editor are very far to seek. The result of their industry and skill will be to add to the practical value and reputation of a work that has always been regarded as the standard authority upon a most important, though somewhat complicated, branch of the law of landlord and tenant. To the student of the law, or of the history of the law, the work will be especially valuable, since the editors have given accurate references, not merely to the old authorities, but to the laws of France, Scotland, Prussia, Holland, and Italy. One effect, however, of the thoroughness with which the work has been done is not quite so satisfactory, though the fault is on the right side. For practical purposes, the notes are occasionally overburdened with authorities, and the busy practitioner would have been grateful if he had been referred to one or two salient cases in support of the editors' views, instead of having every case bearing on the particular subject noted for him to hunt up.

The practical value of a work that is not a scientific treatise, but rather a species of guide-book to the maze of case and statute law which governs the subject, is but little affected by erroneous theories. Hence this edition will not prove the less useful to the profession because its editors have adopted Mr. Amos's views of the principle underlying the law. It was, perhaps, inevitable that they should adopt them; yet the work is so good in other respects that we regret they did not feel themselves at liberty to reject a theory which we think as erroneous as it is inequitable, and which seems at times to have hampered the editors themselves.

The subject is of sufficient interest to laymen, all of whom are probably landlords or tenants, heirs or devisees, to warrant a passing notice. More especially is it of interest now when denunciation of landlords is passing into open warfare. The first point of attack will be the landlord's rights to fixtures, and it will be the easier if Mr. Amos's theory is taken to be the correct one. The view which he held, and which his editors have adopted somewhat dubiously, is that fixtures—i.e. personal chattels affixed to the free-

* *Amos and Ferard on the Law of Fixtures*. Third Edition, revised and adapted to the present state of the law. By Charles Agace Ferard and W. Howland Roberts, Barristers-at-Law. London: Stevens & Sons, 1883.

hold by a tenant—become by their very annexation a part of the freehold, and therefore the property of the landlord. This transfer of property depends on the maxim *quidquid plantatur solo, solo cedit*, which Mr. Amos described as a relic of feudalism, "inequitable in its principle, and injurious in its effects to the spirit of improvement." It is, perhaps, strange that Mr. Amos did not see how untenable his theory was, since even he was forced to admit that the exceptions were "of so extensive a nature as almost to have subverted the general rule." The whole current of authority, with one exception, had been in favour of the tenant's right to remove what he had put up; his right at common law was clear, for it was only by the Statute of Gloucester that the landlord had any remedy; his property in them while annexed remained—they could be seized by the sheriff in execution. With the one exception of Lord Ellenborough's celebrated decision in *Elwes v. Maw*, everything pointed to the rule being that the fixtures were the tenant's, subject to an occasional exception in favour of the landlord in certain cases. The authority of *Elwes v. Maw* has been effectually disposed of in a learned note in the appendix, which shows that Lord Ellenborough's view was opposed to that of all his predecessors, and to the Year-books which he mistranslated. Erroneous as the judgment was, it weighed upon judges for half a century, and it is only in late times that the Courts have been gradually returning to the true theory. For this we are chiefly indebted to the profound learning of Lord Blackburn, to whose judgments English law owes as much as it does to those of Lord Mansfield. In future the current of authority will no doubt be in accord with the cases before Lord Ellenborough's unfortunate decision, and the true principle will be acknowledged to be that fixtures are the landlord's when the object of their annexation was the benefit of the property, but the tenant's when he has put them up "pour occuper son occupation," or "pour son plaisir." This rule will get rid of the difficulty of the degree of annexation, which will be put again in its proper place of being evidence, cogent no doubt, but still merely evidence of the tenant's object. If this be, as we think, the true theory, many seeming anomalies will be removed, and English law redeemed from a charge of being grossly unjust. We believe the editors, had they not felt themselves bound by their author's views, would have adopted it as reasonably explaining why the law holds that a man may remove an ornamental mantelpiece firmly fixed to the wall, though he cannot unscrew a window-fastening. Their not having adopted it has not, however, affected the practical value of their work, as they have provided their readers with all the materials for forming a judgment independent of any theories they put forward. The care they have shown in examining the earlier authorities has been equally given to their examination of the more modern cases, and their references appear to be most accurate. We are not sure that the American cases they quote will prove of much assistance, and we must dissent from the view which they seem to have adopted from America as to the effect of a lease being renewed. The references to the civil law are of more value, and the honest endeavour to understand the meaning of the Ecclesiastical Dilapidations Act and the Bills of Sale Act, 1882, is praiseworthy. The summaries they have given in the body of the work of these extraordinary specimens of legislation seem correct; and, on the whole, we agree with their view of the new Agricultural Holdings Act, though perhaps some of their doubts are a little overstrained. A very valuable addition to the book is a summary of the rules relating to various kinds of fixtures. The profession may be congratulated that the task of re-editing a work of great authority has fallen into the hands of such painstaking editors. They have produced an accurate and well-written work on the law of what is, in Mr. Amos's words, "a species of property which in many instances is of very great value, and involves questions of daily occurrence which affect the rights as well of landlord and tenant as of many other classes of individuals in the ordinary relations of society." We hope, when this edition is exhausted, its editors will give us a work of their own on the subject, and will have the courage to adopt the opinion they suggest to the reader—"that the decision in *Elwes v. Maw* drew, for the first time, an unnecessary distinction" between trade and other fixtures.

GERMAN LITERATURE.

PROFESSOR S. M. DEUTSCH examines the character of Abelard's theology (1), and the influence exerted by it. The former he considers semi-rationalistic in effect, but not in Abelard's conscious intention, the latter as small. The fact is accounted for partly by Abelard's want of system, partly by the pains taken to suppress his works, attested by the paucity of MSS. The work consists of a general introduction treating of the general state of dogmatic theology at the beginning of the twelfth century, of a review of Abelard's life and writings, of a general introduction to his philosophical system, and of the application of his principles to theology, under the heads of the Trinity, Christology, the Doctrine of Sin, and the Doctrine of Redemption.

Dr. Schliemann's new work on his Trojan discoveries (2) has

(1) *Peter Abälard, ein kritischer Theologe des zwölften Jahrhunderts*. Von S. M. Deutsch. Leipzig: Hirzel. London: Nutt.

(2) *Troja: Ergebnisse meiner neuesten Ausgrabungen*. Von Dr. Heinrich Schliemann. Mit Vorrede von Professor A. H. Sayce. Leipzig: Brockhaus. London: Kolckmann.

already received so much notice in various quarters that we need here only chronicle the appearance of the German edition, with the remark that Dr. Schliemann and the more candid among his critics seem to have at length arrived at a satisfactory *modus vivendi*.

A word of recognition must also be accorded to a new and greatly improved edition of a standard work, Overbeck's *Pompeii* (3), with illustrations by Mau. The course of discovery has been attentively followed, and text and plates together offer a living and breathing representation of the familiar life of the ancients.

Friedrich Kluge's etymological dictionary of the German language (4) is a highly meritorious work, distinguished by the clearness and conciseness of its definitions and the copiousness of its illustrations from allied languages and dialects, especially of the Germanic family. English and Anglo-Saxon are especially drawn upon. Scientific compounds and recent importations from the classical languages are very properly omitted; but almost all really important words in common use are to be found. The work is calculated to be most useful to the English as well as to the German student. One rare quality of the author is his sobriety of judgment; he is continually discarding the most tempting etymologies, and refusing to trace the history of words beyond the point up to which it is reasonably certain.

Herr Ehrlich's treatise on the art of living with restraint and decorum (5) is a sensible, well-written book, somewhat too solid for an English taste, but well adapted to the demands of a public that loves to exhaust a question. The subject itself, indeed, is hardly one on which much difference is likely to prevail among cultivated men, and the interest of the book consists less in the author's ethics than in the undesigned illustration of national characteristics. It is pleasing to note the substantial identity of the rules of civilization everywhere, and Germans, English, French, and Americans arriving by different paths at substantially the same result. English writers are quoted with much respect, and justice is done to the strong points of our social and educational systems.

The shores of the Gulf of Genoa are certainly one of the most delightful regions of Europe, and in Count Adelmann (6) they have found one of the most easily pleased and exuberantly happy of Continental tourists. It might be easy to find more observant, graphic, or instructive travellers; not so easy to meet with a companion so agreeable from the mere contagiousness of genial enjoyment. In truth, the writer's appreciation of the beauties of the Riviera is so cordial that the reality might almost prove disappointing; and his book is therefore less to be recommended to intending visitors than to returned tourists wishful to revive pleasant recollections.

August Trefort (7) is a Hungarian savant and statesman who publishes a small volume of miscellanies as a memorial to his deceased son. They are therefore hardly objects of criticism. It may truly be said, however, that if but slight in treatment they do credit to the writer's good feeling and good sense. As a member of the Hungarian Academy of Sciences, it has sometimes fallen to his lot to pronounce eulogiums on deceased foreign members. The elaborate oration on Tocqueville and the slighter one on Macaulay are interesting illustrations of the influence exerted by these great writers in Hungary; while that on Fallmerayer is a real contribution to our knowledge of a remarkable man, one of the chief promoters of the political and intellectual movement of Eastern Europe.

Herr Leopold Katscher (8) has selected as subjects for his biographico-critical essays nine persons, foreign to Germany, as characteristic types of the intellectual currents of the nineteenth century. Four are women and five men; five English, three French, and one a Dane. The studies of the four ladies—George Sand, George Eliot, Currer Bell, and Harriet Martineau—are the fullest and most satisfactory. They show an intelligent and conscientious use of all accessible biographical material, and will contribute to make the English author as well known on the Continent as the world-famous Frenchwoman. The more interesting of the other essays is the one on Buckle, whose biography Herr Katscher has already given to the German public in a compendious form.

It is fifteen years since Dr. Landau first published his essay on the sources of the *Decameron* (9). The present edition is so much enlarged that it is entitled to be accounted a new work. It is a treasury of information, not so much, however, about the *Decameron* as about the Panchatantra, the Seven Wise Masters,

(3) *Pompeji*. Dargestellt von Johannes Overbeck im Vereine mit August Mau. Vierte Auflage. Leipzig: Engelmann. London: Kolckmann.

(4) *Etymologisches Wörterbuch der deutschen Sprache*. Von F. Kluge. Strassburg: K. J. Trübner. London: Trübner & Co.

(5) *Lebenskunst und Kunstleben*. Von H. Ehrlich. Berlin: Hofmann. London: Nutt.

(6) *Am ligurischen Meere. Die Naturpracht der Riviera di Ponente*. Von Alfred Graf Adelmann. Stuttgart: Richter & Haspler. London: Thimm.

(7) *Reden und Studien*. Von August Trefort. Leipzig: Schlicks. London: Kolckmann.

(8) *Charakterbilder aus dem neunzehnten Jahrhundert*. Biographisch-kritische Essays. Von Leopold Katscher. Berlin: Dümmler. London: Williams & Norgate.

(9) *Die Quellen des Dekameron*. Von Dr. Marcus Landau. Zweite sehr vermehrte und verbesserte Auflage. Stuttgart: Scheible. London: Nutt.

Dolopathos, the story of the three rings, every celebrated legend of which any trace, however small, is to be discovered in Boccaccio. In fact Boccaccio himself is frequently almost invisible amid the opulence of illustration. This luxuriance of detail, however, renders the work very amusing; and it might almost serve as a guide to the intricate ramifications of those popular fictions which have obtained universal currency.

It would be well for France if all "contributions towards the history of her genius and manners" were as pure and innocent as that which Dr. Scheffler is enabled to offer by his study of French popular poetry. The wealth of France in this department is very great, and no literature of the kind can possess greater sweetness and more arch simplicity. It seems surprising that it should be so little known, even with full allowance for the extent to which the literature of the cultivated classes has been formed upon classical models. In Germany, as Dr. Scheffler remarks (10), popular and cultured literature have united to form a national literature. In France their estrangement is almost total, although some great writers like George Sand have occasionally condescended to derive a portion of their inspiration from the manners and ideas of the peasantry. Popular literature is moreover rapidly dying out, and the capacity for either producing or enjoying it seems to have all but departed. MM. Luzel, Villemarqué, Champfleury, Theuriot, and other collectors have done much to rescue what is still extant, and even to retrieve what has been lost; but their exertions have produced no effect on French literature remotely comparable to that achieved by the Percy Ballads in England or "Des Knaben Wunderhorn" in Germany. A well-intended endeavour of Louis Napoleon's Government to form a complete collection of French popular poetry came to nothing; and it is to be feared that Dr. Scheffler, writing in so unpopular a language, will not be able to convince the French what treasures they have at home. Although he is seldom able to present any piece in its entirety, there is enough in his excerpts of fancy, tenderness, pathos, gaiety, and solid good sense to convey a most favourable impression of the people from whom they have emanated. They are not generally distinguished by the highest poetical qualities; their charm consists rather in their perfect fidelity to the facts of nature and of human existence. Thus, for example, the blending in the wedding songs of admonitions on the cares which the bride is about to assume with the felicitations becoming the occasion is touching in its truth and feeling. Dr. Scheffler's first volume is devoted to the songs of common life under the six divisions of happy love, unfortunate love, betrothal and bridal, married life, children and household, and festivals. The second volume will contain military songs, ballads, tales, and proverbs. The writer's method is to take the particular idea or custom illustrated by the poems belonging to its cycle, and further elucidate it by quotations exhibiting the various versions current in different parts of France, in themselves only too brief, but accompanied by a glossary of even superfluous fulness. Two introductory chapters respectively institute a comparison between German and French popular poetry, and discuss the history of the latter and of the principal endeavours to preserve it and make it known.

The history of the Royal Theatre at Hanover (11) presents some curious features. As early as 1581 Henry Julius, Duke of Brunswick, appears as a dramatic poet with the "comedy of *Vincenzius Ludislaus, Satrap of Mantua*." A hundred years later, Ernest Augustus, father of George I., causes Italian operas to be represented in a very grandiose style, the mechanist being apparently at least as important as the musician. Among the stage properties is recorded "a griffin's nest." A little later we find Handel the presiding genius, until he forsakes Hanover for England. Later still Lessing's *Emilia Galotti* is performed, and nearly at the same time the theatre is closed altogether, and the Hanoverian public has to make a shift with puppet plays. So it goes on until, in 1866, the King of Prussia is necessitated by political events to take the theatre under his august protection, and the company, after a decent tribute to their old patron, turn dutifully towards the rising sun.

The degree to which the German public is engrossed by material interests is certainly to be lamented, and should any real poets appear in the country, it is probable that they would long experience a disheartening neglect. At the same time the public cannot be reasonably blamed for declining to be worked up into a merely factitious enthusiasm. When Dr. Rogge (12) reproachfully reminds it that fifteen thousand copies of a poem of Victor Hugo's have been sold in one day, he omits to remark that there is some little difference between the poems of Victor Hugo and those of his client Count von Schack. Schack is not to be despised, he has essayed several styles of poetry with credit; but the very specimens selected by his admirer must convince any reader that in original verse he is merely an elegant dilettante, whose best point is his mastery of metrical form. The appreciation of this kind of excellence is rightly left to amateurs. Platen is incomparably superior to Schack as a master of form, but the experience of half a century has shown that he never can be popular. In his zeal to prove Count von Schack a distinguished poet, Dr. Rogge passes lightly over his really valuable performances, his

excellent history of the Spanish drama, his work on Arab literature in Sicily, and his translation of Firdusi.

"My Repose" (13) seems at first sight a strange title for poems at once so impassioned and so mournful as the majority of those published under this designation by the Queen of Roumania. It appears, however, that the title is derived from her Majesty's country seat, a view of which is prefixed. "Carmen Sylva" possesses abundance of genuine poetical talent; her misfortune is a fatal fluency, evinced in the mere undertaking to write a poem for every day in the year. Could these have been condensed into a poem for every day in the month, the poetical result would not have been inconsiderable. It is surprising that an authoress who has shown herself capable of such point and terseness in her admirable aphorisms should be so little on her guard against diffuseness in lyrical poetry. As a rule, the poems want healthy objectivity even more than concentration; but some are excellent both in form and feeling, as, for instance, the lines on Schopenhauer's misogyny, and the little pieces entitled "Die Sternschuppe" and "Wenn Frauen scherzen."

The four first published, and the four best, of Tennyson's *Idylls of the King* (14) have been admirably rendered by Dr. Carl Weiser, already favourably known as a translator of Shelley. Dr. Weiser's rendering is most accurate, and he deserves especial praise for his skill in reproducing the metrical structure of his original. German lyrical poetry is almost always melodious, German blank verse very seldom; but Dr. Weiser has shown that it is quite possible to make it so.

Spielhagen's last novel (15) is not one of his most important, but is a fairly interesting and attractive story, compounded out of old materials with the dexterity of a practised artist. There is a virtuous hero, somewhat too faultless, who is involved in trouble by the villany of a Greek and an old German—miscreants of too conventional a type—and at last succumbs as a mortal to live as a model. The main action is diversified by a number of minor incidents and personages, most of whom we seem to know already; but the bright style and animated narrative convey an impression of power, and make the book generally entertaining. "Spring Storms" (16), a tale for young ladies, chiefly told in letters, is prettily sentimental, sound and wholesome at the same time, and well adapted for its public.

The *Deutsche Rundschau* (17) has another of its anonymous and probably officially inspired articles upon German foreign policy, evincing profound satisfaction at the isolation of Russia and France. Austria, it is laid down, must be the protection of the Slavonian nationalities in the Balkan peninsula, a view incompatible with any Russian alliance. It is strangely asserted that the Salisbury-Schouvaloff agreement was brought about by the arrival of a Russian envoy at Cabul, which did not take place for several months afterwards. Julius Rodenberg's pictures of Berlin life are entertaining, and include sketches of Rahel, Chamisso, and other notabilities. Turgeneff's reminiscences, on the other hand, this month fail to interest, as the persons described are little known out of Russia, and the novelist has not depicted them in the lively colours with which he was wont to invest his fictitious personages. C. F. Meyer's novelette of "The Monk's Wedding" is concluded with a powerful, if somewhat fantastic, scene; and Dr. Hirschfeld's narrative of his travels in Asia Minor is also terminated.

The November and December numbers of *Auf der Höhe* (18) contain nothing remarkable except the continuation of Fritz Lemmermeyer's "Alchemist," an historical romance of real power, although the speeches are frequently much too long and savour more of the style of the nineteenth than of the fifteenth century.

FRENCH LITERATURE.

THE latest work of the author of *Monsieur, Madame et Bébé* has disturbed the minds of Parisian critics. It has been called a bid for the Academy, and has been reviled and wept over as a sad example of the "Lost Leader" kind. That any one should ever have honestly deemed it possible that M. Droz should partake of "la stupidité égalitaire" is only a proof of what the said stupidity can bring itself to. *Tristesses et Sourires* (1), supposed to be the work, in a kind of diary, of an old lady of quality in the country, is for the most part a severe satire on modern politics, modern manners, modern thoughts on religion, and modern ways generally in France. The accusation which has been brought against the author, that in some of his earlier work he was far from tender to follies and weaknesses of a different kind, is obviously absurd. The satirist shoots folly as it flies, and it is not his fault that the folly which flies to-day is

(1) *Meine Ruh*. Von Carmen Sylva. Berlin: Duncker. London: Williams & Norgate.

(14) *Königsidyllen*. Von Alfred Tennyson. Im Metrum des Originals übertragen von Dr. Carl Weiser. Leipzig: Reclam. London: Volkmann.

(15) *Uhlenhans. Roman*. Von F. Spielhagen. 2 Bde. Leipzig: Staackmann. London: Nutt.

(16) *Lenzenthürme. Erzählungen für junge Mädchen*. Von Marie Boeg. Stuttgart: Richter & Kappeler. London: Thimm.

(17) *Deutsche Rundschau*. Herausgegeben von Julius Rodenberg. Jahrg. 10, Hft. 4. Berlin: Paetel. London: Trübner & Co.

(18) *Auf der Höhe: internationale Revue*. Herausgegeben von Leopold von Sacher-Masoch. Bd. 9, Hfte. 25, 27. Leipzig: Licht & Meyer. London: Nutt.

(1) *Tristesses et Sourires*. Par Gustave Droz. Paris: Havard.

(10) *Die Französische Volksdichtung und Sage*. Ein Beitrag zur Geistes- und Sittengeschichte Frankreichs. Von Wilhelm Scheffler. Bd. I. Leipzig: Schliche. London: Kolkemann.

(11) *Das Königliche Theater zu Hannover*. Von Hermann Müller. Hannover: Helsing. London: Williams & Norgate.

(12) *Adolf Friedrich Graf von Schack. Eine literarische Skizze*. Von Dr. F. W. Rogge. Berlin: Janke. London: Kolkemann.

not the same with that which flew yesterday. The glaring drawbacks of the present régime in France could hardly fail to provoke a satirist who, like M. Droz, has always, even in his most skittish moments, been free from the peculiar *canaille* smirch which marks the manners, the literature, the politics of the Third Republic. At the same time, it is fair to remark that the volume is perhaps rather too uniformly didactic, and that the form hardly admits of sufficient excursions into the personal and dramatic. M. Gustave Droz gives personal and dramatic touches with such felicity that one cannot help regretting the comparative paucity of them here. Still, the book is excellently French, and admirably witty in parts; and, when it is compared with the work of younger writers, the proverb about old wine and new is certainly not falsified.

It is a thesis which might be supported by some argument that the French are, on the whole, the youngest people in the world, though in part they are probably the oldest. Coming from this large proposition to a smaller one, it is certain that they are much younger than the English. French caricature and extravaganzas, when they are healthy and honest (as they are much more often than superficial readers suppose), have a genuine childishness about them for which in England we must go well behind the nineteenth century. In France here is M. Robida (2) with another book which, whether its readers like it as well as *La tour enchantée* or not, is a very capital book of its kind. The story is, of course, next to nothing. How M. Dumollet (*bourgeois de Paris*) resolved to go to St. Malo some sixty years ago to carry off his bride; how he borrowed a donkey to ride, fearing the dangerous diligence; what manifold troubles this animal got him into, so that at last he was driven to appear with a troop of strollers as "Mokodingo, the Great Cannibal of Africa"; how even after this disaster he tumbled out of the frying-pan into the fire—all this is told amusingly enough, but it is little more than the vehicle of M. Robida's abundant, fantastically coloured, but carefully drawn and very cleverly composed, designs. Both text and illustrations are really laughable, but the critic, if not the general reader, cannot help noticing the character of their laughableness. There is not one iota of satire properly so called, whether political or literary, or social or any other. The extravaganzas are a pure extravaganzas, without the remotest purpose beyond muscle-moving.

Two volumes on philosophical subjects (3 and 4), neither of which requires a long notice, may here be mentioned to their probable readers. The first, M. Fouillée's ethical critique, is one of those careful and industrious surveys of other men's thoughts which are commoner in all European languages nowadays in the literature of philosophy than contributions of original thought. M. Ferrière's title explains his standpoint, which is that of the extremest materialism; but his book also is rather a compilation and an anthology than a substantive work.

We noticed recently one of the oldest of European periodicals; we may now notice the absolutely youngest, in the shape of the *Revue internationale* (5), which Signor Angelo de Gubernatis has started at Florence in French, with contributors and correspondents everywhere, from Tobolsk to Tangier. M. de Gubernatis made a very fair start at Christmas, with a list of articles including the full text of Mr. Max Müller's Bristol lecture on Rammohun Roy; a paper on Belgian parties, from M. de Laveleye; and a fair collection of miscellaneous papers, not forgetting fiction. His second number, dated the 10th of this month, has a pendant to the Rammohun Roy lecture in the shape of a lecture on Grotius by M. Opzoomer, President of the Amsterdam Academy of Science, and both contain interesting articles on the Italian theatre. We are not quite certain that the inclusion in such a Review of a *chronique politique* is wise. As a bare record of events, it is superfluous; and the moment it attempts to be anything else the international character of it is pretty sure to suffer. Thus early, too, M. de Gubernatis has had a little theological difficulty, which he has explained, but of which he will probably be wise to avoid a repetition.

The appearances of M. Octave Feuillet in print are not very numerous now; so that while we are expecting *La Veuve* it is worth directing readers to some pleasant *scènes dialoguées* of his in the *Revue des deux mondes* (6) for the new year.

We do not know that *Le bouf Mich'* (7) can be recommended *Virginius puerisque*, or, to speak less hypocritically, we do know that it cannot. But fortunately it is written in a lingo which remarkably few *pueri* and fewer *virgines* are likely to understand. How many English readers could answer the question "What is a *vadrouilleur*?" *Le bouf Mich'*, however, is an ambitious book; and, as it is not in the least amusing, it may pretend to be really a "document" in the style of the master—M. de Goncourt—to whom M. Caraguel dedicates it. What it pretends to do is to show what the life led in the successors of the Café Momus of thirty, and the Brasserie des Martyrs of twenty, years ago is like. These resorts lie chiefly in or about the Boulevard St-Michel—whence the slang title. If anybody chooses to follow

the fortunes of Tralala, the "modern" strong man, and Tatave, the "modern" weak one, he will see pass before him an unsavoury, and doubtless an exaggerated, diorama. But there are reasons for thinking that M. Caraguel is not writing quite out of his own head, and the result certainly "gives to think" as to the advantages of a century of open questions in politics, morals, and religion. Only M. Caraguel has a word of comfort which is rather a double-edged word. "N'est pas Michelin qui veut" it would appear, and the average provincial in his years of student life rarely attains to the full dignity of a *vadrouilleur*. This, all things considered, as here represented by the historian of *vadrouillerie*, a noun which we venture to coin, is perhaps just as well for France, if not for Paris. *La faute de la comtesse* (8) is a much more ordinary sort of book, telling the old story of a middle-aged man who marries a young wife, and without any unkind intention makes her unhappy. The falls of Schaffhausen finish the story with a perhaps unnecessary tragedy.

(8) *La faute de la comtesse*. Par V. Rooslane. Paris: Plon.

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London: Published at 38 SOUTHAMPTON STREET, STRAND, W.C.

(2) *Le voyage de M. Dumollet*. Texte et dessins par A. Robida. Paris: Decaux.

(3) *Critique des systèmes de morale*. Par A. Fouillée. Paris: Germer-Baillière.

(4) *L'âme est la fonction du cerveau*. Par E. Ferrière. 2 vols. Paris: Germer-Baillière.

(5) *Revue internationale*. Florence: Bureau de la "Revue internationale." London: Trübner & Co.

(6) *Revue des deux mondes*. Première livraison. 1884.

(7) *Le bouf Mich'*. Par J. Caraguel. Paris: Ollendorff.

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Subscriptions are invited for the balance unallotted of the above Stock, on the following terms and conditions:—

1. The price is 85 for every £100 of stock, and no sum less than £10, or that is not a multiple of £10, will be allotted.
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3. The balance is payable in the instalments, and on the dates of payment subjoined.

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4. Subscribers will have the option of paying the above-named instalments in advance the day fixed for the payment of each instalment, or any one of the days fixed for the payment of the first or any subsequent instalment; and interest at the rate of 4½ per cent. per annum will be allowed by way of rebate for the time the payment in advance is made.

5. If an instalment remains unpaid after the due date, interest at the rate of 4½ per cent. per annum will be charged upon the arrears.

6. In the event of any instalment and the interest due thereon remaining unpaid for more than thirty days after the due date, the Directors reserve to themselves the right to declare all previous payments forfeited, and to dispose of the Stock at their discretion for the benefit of the Company.

7. No sum less than £10, or that is not a multiple of £10, will be transferred, and Stock transferred is to be held by the transferee subject to the conditions of the original Allotment; and no Stock will be transferred until any instalment, or which notice has been given in paid.

8. Twenty-one days' notice of the first and subsequent instalments will be sent by post to the Registered Proprietors of the Stock.

The rapidly approaching completion of the Company's works, authorized by their Act of 1882, renders it very desirable that the extension of the Company's system to Huddersfield and Halifax, the construction of the new Fish Dock, and the completion of the Central Passenger Station in Hull, as authorized by the Company's Acts of 1882 and 1883 respectively, should be proceeded with without delay.

It has been resolved to enter upon a contract with Messrs. Lucas and Ald for the construction of the entire works, on arbitration terms and prices, with a view to the strictest economy. This arrangement has been accepted by that firm, and it is believed the works can be completed in three years from their commencement.

The trade of Hull, upon which the prosperity of the Company's undertaking must always largely depend, continues steadily to increase. The tonnage upon which dock dues were paid in 1882 was 4,255,377 tons, against 2,317,219 tons in the previous year, showing an increase of 2,938,158 tons. The estimated tonnage for the close of this year is 4,225,000, showing a further increase of about 100,000 tons over 1882, and a total increase over 1881 of more than 300,000 tons.

The extension of the Company's system to Huddersfield and Halifax will be of incalculable advantage in preserving and fostering the trade of the port with the West Riding and the Midland districts.

The construction of the Fish Dock, urgently called for by a large section of the trade, will largely increase the volume of that trade, and put a highly remunerative traffic on the railway.

The Company's Act of 1882, authorizing the extension of their system to Huddersfield and Halifax, was promoted at the request of a deputation, composed of members of the Corporations and Chambers of Commerce of Huddersfield and Halifax, and the merchants and manufacturers of those towns and the surrounding districts.

It is no exaggeration to say that the deputation, in seeking to obtain further railway facilities, fully represented the views and only of the respective Corporations to whom the line belonged, but those also of a manufacturing and industrial population approaching 400,000 in number.

The Corporations of Huddersfield and Halifax were desirous of contributing each the sum of £200,000 to the Capital required, and their desire in this respect (although not acceded to by Parliament) was in each case unanimously supported by the Ratepayers in public meeting assembled.

The objects sought to be obtained by the Company's Act of 1882 were:—

1. The establishment of good local connexion between Halifax and Huddersfield.
2. To obtain improved communication between those towns and the Midland districts, the West of England, and the Port of Hull.
3. To open up new sources of Coal supply, for household and manufacturing purposes, to the towns of Huddersfield and Halifax, and the surrounding districts.

That portion of the line which lies between Cudworth and Huddersfield passes through an important section of the Flockton coal field, and, in addition, will open out the South Yorkshire coal field to the Huddersfield merchants and manufacturers, who are in a great measure forced to seek their supplies by means of carting at a heavy cost. The railway facilities hitherto given to the towns of Huddersfield and Halifax have been lamentable in the extreme, not only as regards local traffic with each other, but with regard also to their connexion with the Midland districts, and with London.

This state of affairs will be entirely remedied by the construction of the proposed line, together with the joint Midland and Hull and Barnsley Station at Cudworth.

The Hull and Barnsley Railway Company have made an agreement with the Midland Railway Company whereby the use of the line is accorded to the latter Company on equitable terms, and the Hull and Barnsley Company have received an intimation, in writing, that the Midland Railway Company, in entering into that agreement in 1883 for running powers over this line, did so with the full intention, which they still retain, of exercising their running powers between Cudworth, Huddersfield, and Halifax, upon completion of the railway.

The relations between the Hull and Barnsley Railway Company and the Midland Railway Company continue to be of a friendly character, and hold out the strongest assurance that the traffic of both Companies between Cudworth, Huddersfield, and Halifax will be worked harmoniously and economically, and that the whole trade of the district will be thoroughly developed.

It is impossible to conceive any announcement of greater importance than the above, to all who have the welfare at heart of the commercial and industrial classes in the West Riding of Yorkshire, or who are interested in the continued and increasing prosperity of the Midland Railway Company.

There can be little doubt that the co-operation of the two Companies working over this line will alone secure the payment of the reasonable dividend of 4½ per cent., but it should be borne in mind that when the dividend on this Stock commences to accrue it will be secured as a first charge (after payment of Debenture interest) upon the profits of the entire property of the Hull and Barnsley Railway Company, which will consist, when their authorized works are completed, of 97 miles of railway and a Dock Estate of about 400 acres in extent, supplied with two docks of 46 acres and 14 acres of water space respectively.

The price of 85 per £100, at which this Stock is issued, renders it a very desirable investment, having regard to the prospect of its ultimate value, and the present value of English Railway Preference Stocks.

A Bill has been deposited in Parliament by the merchants and others of Halifax for the construction of the necessary short connecting link between that town and Huddersfield, on the Great Northern Railway, and it is hoped that arrangements will be made whereby, if this proposition be also sanctioned, the Hull and Barnsley Company (and through them the Midland Railway Company) will have the use of it on terms to be agreed, thus securing the long-needed route to Scotland and the North through Huddersfield and Halifax.

An epitome of some of the principal evidence given before the Committees of Parliament, together with explanatory maps, and forms of application, may be obtained from the Bankers of the Company, Messrs. Smith, Payne, and Smith, London; Messrs. Samuel Smith Bros. & Co., Hull; also from the following Brokers:—Messrs. Capel & Co., 5 Throgmorton Street, London; Messrs. Mullens, Marshall, & Co., Lombard Street, London; Messrs. Moore & Son, Huddersfield; Mr. J. H. Thackeray, Halifax; and from the SECRETARY at the Office of the Company in Hull.

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By Order,

J. DANJELL, Secretary.

Hull, January 11, 1884.

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